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ABSTRACT

Compared was the self-reported delinquent behavior among representative samples of approximately 1,400 American Boys and girls (13-to 16-years-old) during national surveys in 1967 and 1972. Adolescent Ss from 48 states were individually interviewed by a young adult of the same sex. Results indicated an increase in illicit drug (primarily marijuana) use, while the incidence of other kinds of delinquency declined among boys and remained stable among girls. The marked increase in drug use form 1967 to 1972 appeared to be a function of variables such as greater autonomy granted to adolescents by their parents, growing parental tolerance of marijuana use, and perceptions among teenagers of drug use as a more normal peer activity. (Appended are footnotes, explanations of survey items and correlational statistical tables). (Author/LH)

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National Survey of Youth
Report No. 1

Changing Patterns of Delinquent Behavior Among Americans 13 through 16 Years Old: 1967-1972*

by

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Gold & Reimer: Changing Patterns of Delinquent Behavior Among Americans 13 through 16 Years Old 1967-1972

ABSTRACT

Comparisons are made between the delinquent behavior reported by comparable representative samples of American boys and girls in 1967 and 1972. They demonstrate no increase in the rate of delinquent behavior during those two years, excepting an increase in the illicit use of drugs. Indeed, the delinquent behavior of boys otherwise declined.

Exploration of correlative changes in the perceptions and attitudes of adolescents in that period suggest that the shift to drug use was at least in part a function of growing tolerance of parents for adolescents' use of marijuana and their concommitant granting of greater autonomy to their adolescent sons and daughters. It is suggested that marijuana use, if not the use of other illicit drugs, had shifted from 1967 to 1972 to that more attractive part of the spectrum of deviant acts which, while still clearly deviant, was not perceived by adolescents as horrifying to their important parental and peer reference groups.

Changing Patterns of Delinquent Behavior Among Americans 13 through 16 Years Old: 1967-1972

Students of delinquency and crime have generally become so wary of interpreting official figures such as those of the FBI Uniform Crime Reports as indicative of the levels or nature of criminal behavior that we have found ourselves unable to state how much crime there really is or whether there is now more or less than there was at some previous time. Reliable data collected on comparable populations at two points in time have simply not been available to us.

This article reports findings based on such data that have recently become available, the self-reported delinquency of comparable and representative samples of American boys and girls in 1967 and 1972. The figures document the differences in levels and kinds of delinquent behavior reported in the two years. Further, an attempt is made to understand changes in the patterns of delinquent behavior by examining correlative changes in the perceptions and attitudes of American adolescents.

Method

Samples

The sources of the data are the first and second National Survey of Youth, in 1967 and 1972, respectively.[1] The sampling procedure of the 1967 survey has been described in detail elsewhere.[2] Briefly, it consisted of revisiting households that had previously been selected for an adult interview in several national surveys and where at least one person 13 through 16 years old was known to live at the time of original selection. This method of sampling, while not altogether satisfactory from the point of view of efficiency, did yield a satisfactory national

sample of the age cohort.

Sample selection for the 1972 National Survey of Youth differed from the 1967 procedure, but it also yielded a satisfactory national sample comparable to the earlier one. The multistage area sample design provided for interviewing adolescents in 40 geographical areas (counties or county groups) called Primary Sampling Units (PSUs), throughout the coterminous 48 United States, with an expected yield of 1600 interviews of boys and girls 11 through 18 years old. The 40 PSUs, a subset of the Survey Research Center's 74-PSU national household sample,[3] consist of the New York and the Chicago Standard Consolidated Areas, seven of the ten largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs), an additional 16 SMSAs (ranging in size from around 125,000 to 1,900,000), and 15 non-SMSAs (whose populations range from 5,000 to 200,000). As many as 20 neighborhoods (or clusters) were selected at random in the largest PSUs and as few as five in the smallest PSUs. Then housing units (HUs) were randomly chosen within each cluster.

Only one adolescent from each HU was interviewed; in HUs with more than one eligible respondent, selection of the respondent was made on a random basis. The reason for interviewing only one boy or girl per HU rather than all eligible adolescents, which would be a much more economical procedure, was to obtain a more heterogeneous sample in terms of family background and parent-child relationships.

Approximately 1,960 of the occupied HUs had one or more adolescents 11 through 18 years of age. (The exact number of HUs with eligible respondents is unknown because interviewers were not able to determine the composition of the household when inhabitants refused to give information on household composition or when the interviewers never found anyone home.)

The total number of eligible respondents interviewed is 1,395. The response rate was thus 71 percent. The reasons for nonresponse are varied. The most common reasons and their proportion of the total nonresponses are as follows: refusal by selected respondent (36 percent); refusal by parent or both respondent and parent (33 percent); selected respondent absent or not available--e.g., respondent willing to be interviewed but did not have time, often because of job or school activities (20 percent). Other reasons (11 percent) include, for example, adolescents who could not be interviewed because they did not speak English or because of a physical or psychological disability.

In order to document the representativeness of the sample, we compared the sex, age, and race composition of the sample of 1,395 with the 1970 Census data on the population of approximately 32 million 11 through 18 year olds (see Table 1).

It is apparent that females are slightly underrepresented in the sample; however, the difference between the sample and population proportions is less than one percent. While this is a very small difference, we wondered whether the undersampling of females might have been due to a lower response rate among females. For most of the HUs that yielded no response (i.e., 468 of the estimated 565 HUs with an eligible respondent who was not interviewed), the age and sex of the selected respondent was ascertained. Examination of these data reveals no difference in the nonresponse rates of male and female respondents.

Looking now at the racial composition of the sample, we note that white females are underrepresented, compared to white males, but among

blacks the proportion of females is slightly larger relative to males. These data, along with the fact that the number of males sampled is one percent lower than the population figure, suggest an appreciably higher nonresponse rate among black males. It should be pointed out that the interviewers did not record the race of nonrespondents (only age and sex); however, we are able to identify a limited number of clusters in which nonrespondents were very likely to be black, based on the racial composition of adolescents in the cluster who were interviewed. In these "black clusters," the male nonresponse rate was indeed about 25 percent higher than the female nonresponse rate.

It is also apparent in Table 1 that the proportions for "other" (race) are quite a bit higher in the sample than in the population, especially among females. We believe that this discrepancy may be due largely to a difference in the methods of collecting racial information in NSY compared to the Census, a difference that would primarily affect the racial identification of Spanish-Americans. The Census uses a self-report method, the respondent choosing among white, black and several other designations including American Indian, Chinese, Japanese, etc., but there is no Spanish-American designation; however, the respondent can check "Other" and write in any designation he or she wishes (e.g., Puerto Rican, Mexican). The NSY '72 interviewers, on the other hand, designated the respondent's race themselves and were instructed to distinguish Spanish-Americans (encountered most often in Miami and Los Angeles) on the basis of surname and native language. Thus, a number of NSY respondents identified as Spanish-Americans would probably be identified by the Census as white or black.

Finally, we have compared the composition of the sample to the population with respect to age. The differences between sample and population percentages at the eight age levels present a rather mixed pattern. Al-

though in five of the eight age groups the sample proportion differs by more than one percent from the population proportion (in only one group, age 18, does the difference exceed two percent), the only evident trend is the oversampling tendency at ages 11 and 12. We were curious whether these departures might be related to response rate, such that undersampling at a given age level would be linked to a low response rate at that age level and oversampling, to a high response rate. At first glance this seemed to be a valid explanation, for it was noted that the response rate was lowest and undersampling most pronounced at age 18; however, the correlation between sampling discrepancies and response rates, while in the expected direction, is not statistically significant. That is, we ordered the age groups by how much their proportions in our sample deviated from their proportion in the population, and by their response rates; and we found no reliable relationship between the two orders. Thus, the over- and undersampling tendencies related to age cannot be accounted for by differential response rates.

To summarize, the sex, race, and age composition of the sample has been compared with the composition of the parent population. There are slight differences in the sample and the population, but overall they appear to be quite similar. We conclude, therefore, that the sample of adolescents interviewed in the 1972 National Survey of Youth adequately represents boys and girls 11 through 18 years old in the United States.

Comparability of the 1972 and 1967 Samples

As our primary substantive interest here is to compare the delinquent behavior and other characteristics of adolescents in the 1972 National Survey of Youth with those of adolescents in the 1967 National Survey of Youth, it is necessary to ensure the similarity of these two samples with respect to basic demographic variables. The sample drawn in 1967 consisted

of 847 boys and girls age 13 through 16. We compared this sample with the sample of 661 boys and girls in that age range interviewed in 1972. Data on the composition of the 1967 and 1972 samples in terms of sex, sex by race, and age is provided in Table 2.

The proportions of boys and girls in the '67 and '72 samples are fairly similar, but there are some discrepancies when sex and age are considered. Comparison of the proportions at each level in the two samples using the chi square test reveals a statistically reliable difference between the samples, and the same is true when the proportion of white (or black) girls (or boys) are compared. These differences in sample composition could bias comparisons of delinquent behavior from 1967 to 1972, since both age and (to a lesser extent) race are related to delinquency. It was decided, therefore, to make adjustments in the samples that would equalize the age and sex-race proportions, but this has only been done in carrying out analyses of delinquent behavior that could be biased by the difference in age and/or sex-race distribution. The adjustments consisted of the random deletion of respondents in certain categories from the '72 sample to make the proportions in the '72 sample approximately equal to the '67 proportions.

The discrepancy in the age distributions was most conveniently allocated to the smaller proportions of 13-year olds in the '67 sample (18.3 percent versus 25 percent in the '72 sample). This was the most convenient adjustment inasmuch as it involved only one age category and required the fewest deletions. The '67 and '72 age distributions have been brought into line by randomly deleting fifty-eight 13 year olds from the '72 sample. The source of the discrepancy in the sex-race distribution was allocated to the differential proportion of black females in the two samples, 12.7

percent in '67 versus 17.7 percent in '72. The sex-race proportions have been brought into line by randomly deleting 11 black females from the '72 sample. It is, of course, important that the delinquency scores of the 13 year olds and black females randomly deleted from the '72 sample are not on the average higher or lower than the scores of similar respondents who remain in the sample; such comparisons were carried out, demonstrating negligible differences between the deleted and remaining respondents with respect to delinquency.

The '67 and '72 samples have also been compared with respect to parental socio-economic status, measured on the Duncan SES index[4] and with respect to the type of demographic area (rural-suburban-urban) where the respondent has lived most of his/her life. The two samples have almost identical socio-economic status scores on the average and have very similar distributions with respect to the demographic areas in which the respondents resided.

The sampling procedure followed in NSY '72--and also in NSY '67--called for interviewing only one adolescent per household, even though in many instances (about 50 percent it turned out) there was more than one eligible respondent in a household. Thus, the chance of an adolescent being selected for the interview was inversely proportional to the number of eligible adolescents in the household. The biasing effects of this sampling procedure may be counteracted simply by weighting responses according to the number of eligible respondents in the household.[5] However, statistical interpretation is more straightforward when one uses unweighted data. Furthermore, experience has shown that the differences between weighted and unweighted results are small. We have conducted an analysis to determine whether crucial scores weighted according to number of eligible respondents

are significantly different from unweighted scores. This analysis consisted of comparing weighted and unweighted estimates (an estimate is a summary statistic such as a mean or the response frequency for a given code) on 12 major variables, which included, for example, frequency and seriousness of delinquency, school grade average, parental socio-economic status, and indices of father's and mother's affection. The analysis was done separately for male and female respondents. For 23 of the 24 comparisons, it was found that the difference between the weighted and unweighted estimates was less than one-twentieth of the standard deviation of the estimate. According to Cochran,[6] the effect of bias on the accuracy of an estimate can be considered negligible if the bias is less than one-tenth of the standard deviation of the estimate. We decided, therefore, to treat the data without weights.

Interviewing

Each interview was conducted by a young adult of the same sex as the respondent. The first contact was by form letter from the Study Director to the heads of the selected households informing them that named interviewers would come by to inquire if an 11 to 18 year old lived in that household. The interviewers in the field mailed the letters or delivered them to the doors after selecting addresses. One or both members of the interview team visited shortly thereafter; where possible they listed eligible respondents at that time, selected one at random to be interviewed, and made an appointment for the interview.

At the appointed hour, the interviewer called for the respondent, usually at the respondent's home but sometimes elsewhere--at school perhaps, or at a place of employment. They drove together to an interviewing site --a library, a community center, a hospital. On the way and as they were settling down for the interview, the interviewer explained in general terms

the nature of the National Survey of Youth and answered any questions that the respondent might have. Confidentiality was stressed, as was the interviewer's eagerness for the respondent to ask for an explanation if he or she did not understand any part of the interview. The interviewer--men interviewing boys and women, girls--also made clear that he was interested, for his part, in understanding the respondent's answers and that he might sometimes ask the respondent to clarify what he had said. Later on in the interview, at the point when the questions on the respondent's delinquent behavior were introduced, the interviewer reminded the respondent of the confidential nature of the data and made a special request for frankness. The respondent was particularly asked if he preferred not to be asked these questions about his delinquent behavior (two percent demurred).

We should explain at this point that any information collected by NSY '72 that might identify a particular youngster and any such information held by personnel are immune from subpoena. This grant of immunity was made by the U.S. Department of Justice under Section 502[c] of Public Law 91-513, the Comprehensive Drug Abuse Prevention and Control Act of 1970. Furthermore, great care was taken to keep such information as was necessary for administrative purposes separate from individuals' responses. Links of data to individuals were destroyed as soon as they were no longer needed.

At the close of the interview the interviewer drove the respondent home or whereever he wanted to go; with younger respondents the arrangement was made with parental approval.

Interviews took an average of about an hour and a half. But the range varied widely from about 45 minutes to more than three hours, depending largely on how much delinquent behavior a young respondent confessed.

Measures of delinquent behavior

The primary dependent variable in this report is delinquent behavior. It was measured well on into the interview, after questions about family, school, friends, health, politics and other topics had been discussed. Respondents were presented a packet of 17 pre-punched Hollerith cards on which were printed brief descriptions of delinquent acts. (See Figure 1 for the list of items and the abbreviated titles of the acts that we will use hereafter.) They were asked to sort items into three piles, indicating whether they had committed each act "never," "once," or "more than once" in the previous three years, and they were told that they would be asked some further questions about those offenses they had committed. They were at this point reminded of the anonymity and confidentiality of the interview and urged not to respond at all if they felt that they could not be completely open and honest.

Interviewers followed up the card sort by asking questions designed to obtain full descriptions of the three most recent incidents of each of the 17 items to which respondents confessed. A major reason for recording these details is to assess the seriousness of each act, which is one component in guaging the degree of an individual's delinquency. For example, 22 percent of the "offenses" described by respondents were later judged too trivial to be considered actually delinquent.

Whether respondents are truthful in reporting their delinquent behavior under the conditions of this method has been the object of validation studies.[7] These suggest that as many as 15 percent may conceal some or all of their delinquent behavior, but that the rest respond positively to the

interviewers' instructions to be completely open and honest.

Several indices of delinquent behavior were constructed for each respondent from the descriptions he or she gave of the delinquent acts committed in the three years prior to the interview. Actually, 81 percent of the reported acts had been committed within the previous year. Four of the indices are used in the analyses reported here, so they will be described.

Total frequency of significant incidents. This is a simple count of those incidents which content analysts judged to be chargeable rather than trivial. Interviewers had already made this judgment as well, based on guidelines provided to them. The content analysts and the interviewers agreed in 91 percent of the cases.

We also checked inter-coder agreement; that is, we figured the percentage of offenses in which two independent content analysts agreed as to their triviality. The 131 check-coded interviews included 826 offenses. Independent check-coders agreed with the primary coders' judgments on 97 percent of the offenses.

Total seriousness index. This index weights each act reported by a respondent by its seriousness, then sums the weighted scores for a total seriousness score for each respondent.

The weights assigned are based on the work of T. Sellin and M. E. Wolfgang,[8] with but two modifications. First, Sellin and Wolfgang do not include in the total scores those acts which are assigned the minimum weight of one, while we have included these. Sellin and Wolfgang excluded such offenses to rule out trivia. This is an important consideration, but we have taken a different approach to it--the two judgments of trivality by interviewers and content analysts described earlier. We included only acts which the content analysts judged significant.

The other modification we have made has to do with minor differences in the cut-points in the amount of money a stolen item is worth or the extent of injury done to a victim. These were modified according to our experience with the kinds of distinctions our youngest respondents could make.

Figure 2 describes the weights given to each delinquent act and the characteristics of the act which qualified it for its weight. The reader should note that only eight of the 17 offenses about which we inquired are included in the computation of this seriousness index. These comprise the subset of the 17 which are included in Sellin and Wolfgang's index. Other offenses, such as running away, drinking, using illicit drugs, and truancy are not counted into an individual's score on the total seriousness index. They are included however, in the score of total frequency of significant offenses described above. These two indices are highly correlated with a gamma of .79 for boys and .74 for girls. Nevertheless, they are different enough to warrant using both in analyses of the data.

Total frequency of significant incidents, omitting drinking and drug use. ("Tot Freq-DD") Because of the special light it throws on the data to follow, a simple count was made of those significant incidents each respondent reported exclusive of drinking alcoholic beverages, and using marijuana and illicit use of other drugs.

Frequency of use of marijuana and illicit use of other drugs (not including alcohol). This score counts up to three incidents of the illicit use of drugs. As the note to Figure 1 indicates, only three such incidents could be recorded in 1967 while six could be recorded in 1972 because marijuana was separated in our questioning in the last survey. But the 1972

score was also restricted to the three most recent incidents in order to make all the indices comparable between the two surveys.

Many other indices of adolescent attitudes and perceptions were also constructed. Those relevant to this report will be introduced when they are discussed in relationship to indices of delinquent behavior.

Changes in Delinquent Behavior 1967-1972

The most important result emerging from our comparison of delinquent behavior among 13 to 16 year olds from 1967 to 1972 is not that the amount of delinquency had changed, but that the style had changed. Boys in that age cohort in 1972 reported less delinquent behavior than their peers in the 1967 survey did; but they admitted to markedly different frequencies of certain offenses. Specifically, more of the '72 male respondents reported more frequent use of illicit drugs--mostly marijuana--than the 1967 respondents did, and less larceny, threatened assault, trespassing, forcible and non-forcible entry, and gang fighting. The girls in '72 also reported greater use of drugs--mostly marijuana but including alcohol--than girls did in '67, while reporting less larceny, property destruction, and breaking and entering. But the decline of the latter kinds of offenses among the girls in 1972 does not balance their greater use of drugs, so the girls in '72 reported more delinquent behavior overall.

Comparisons between the 1967 and 1972 cohorts are reported below, always separately for males and females. After all males and all females in the two years are compared, then comparisons are reported for sub-sets of the cohorts defined by race, age, socioeconomic status, and place of residence (urban/suburban/rural). Mean scores are reported for all com-

parisons, but percentage scores are provided only for the '67 and '72 comparisons of all males and of all females. The Mann-Whitney U test has been used throughout to determine the statistical reliability of the differences between '67-'72 subgroups; formally stated, the null hypothesis tested by the Mann-Whitney U test is that the distribution of scores on a given index of delinquent behavior are alike in the '67 and '72 samples being compared. The probability levels for the Mann-Whitney U's are reported with the means.

Males. The graphs of the total frequency and total seriousness of delinquency scores in Figures 3 and 4 demonstrate that the level of delinquency among boys had declined from 1967 to 1972 on both measures. At the same time, there is a general similarity in the shapes of the '67 and '72 distributions of scores, lower scores being much more frequent than higher ones. Translating the declines into percentage terms, we find that the number of incidents per capita decreased by a little more than nine percent and that seriousness scores decreased by almost 14 percent. Boys in 1972 were committing most of the specific offenses less frequently or at about the same frequency as in 1967; six offenses and sub-offenses show a marked decrease ($p = .001$)--larceny, threat, trespass, enter, break and enter, and gang fighting. Declines in reporting major categories of offenses range from 28 percent for trespassing to 49 percent for incidents of threatening assault. Only two acts, fraud to obtain alcohol and use of marijuana and drugs, were engaged in more frequently (at a statistically reliable level)

by males in '72. The tenfold increase in marijuana and drug use represents by far the greatest change in the commission of specific offenses. Males in the two years were also compared on the index of total frequency of delinquency which does not include incidents of drinking or marijuana and drug use (see Figure 5). This measure reveals a 20 percent decline ($p = .001$) in the number of incidents per capita from '67 to '72.

Females. The results for females, presented in Figures 6-8, are both similar and dissimilar to the males' results. The mean number of incidents of all offenses committed by girls in '72 is 22 percent higher than in '67 (see Figure 6), but the comparison of scores on the total seriousness index (see Figure 7) reveals no difference between the two years. There are only a few offenses which show marked changes, the most significant being increases in the frequency of drinking and marijuana and drug use; the frequency of drinking is nearly doubled, and per capita use of marijuana and drugs is nine times greater among females in '72 than in '67. It is clear that the sharp increases in the frequencies of these two offenses are completely responsible for the higher total frequency scores in '72. When drinking and marijuana and drug use are excluded, we find no change over the five years in per capita frequency of offenses among girls (see Figure 8).

So the use of drugs (including girls' use of alcohol) is the only delinquent behavior that has increased sharply among 13 to 16 year old boys and girls from 1967 to 1972. There are two things we wish to point out in order to give the reader a clearer understanding of this change. First, the reason that the increase in marijuana and drug use is so dramatic--nine times greater in '72 than in '67, far exceeding any other increase or decrease in delinquent behavior--lies largely in the extremely low incidence of drug use in the '67 sample. Only 2.1 percent of boys (ten respondents) and 2.4 percent of girls (nine respondents) admitted to using drugs in 1967. Consequently, even though less than 20 percent of boys and girls in the '72 sample admit to using marijuana and/or drugs, the increase relative to the '67 levels is marked. Second, it is important we believe to document the frequency of marijuana use compared with the frequency of use of other drugs. The data reported on the frequency of marijuana and other drug use of males and female reflect mostly marijuana use. The proportion of NSY '72 respondents (male and female results are highly similar) who report ever using marijuana is close to two and one-third times greater than the proportion reporting other drug use. Almost 17 percent of '72 respondents have used marijuana, but only 7.2 percent have used other drugs; the total number of incidents of each is 106 and 45, respectively. Thus, the reader should keep in mind that when "marijuana and drug use" is referred to, this means mostly marijuana use.

We turn to the '67-'72 comparisons of various subgroups of males and females, defined by major variables such as age, race and socioeconomic status. These comparisons identify more precisely among whom changes in

delinquent behavior have taken place. We consider below the mean levels of delinquent behavior in a number of relatively small subgroups. The reader should bear in mind that these subgroup means do not provide as reliable estimates of the true level of delinquent behavior in the subpopulations they represent as do the total sample means (for all males and females in '67 and '72) which are based on much larger numbers of respondents. Their smaller numbers are taken into account in the statistical tests, however.

Race. We report here comparisons of the delinquent behavior of whites and of blacks in 1967 and 1972, separately for boys and girls; respondents belonging to other racial groups were excluded from this analysis. These results are presented in Tables 3 and 4. There was not a great deal of difference in the changes from '67 to '72 among blacks and whites on the indices of total frequency and total seriousness of delinquency, nor at the level of specific offenses. The decline in total frequency is about the same for blacks and whites although total seriousness has declined only among whites. It seems that the latter result is at least partly due to the decrease in the number of assault and threat incidents among white males, while among black males assault was reported more frequently in '72, and the frequency of threat remained about the same. Looking at the reports of girls, we note that the increase in total frequency was greater among whites, due largely to the sharper rise in drinking and use of marijuana and drugs among white girls; but the total seriousness results for black and white females are almost the same: neither racial group changed markedly from '67 to '72.

Changes in the commission of specific offenses occur differentially in the black and white samples, but these differential shifts do not seem to follow any clear pattern. Changes in the frequency of carrying a concealed weapon among blacks--males showing a statistically reliable decrease and females a reliable increase--are especially curious (note that among white males and females there was virtually no change from '67 to '72); but we are unable to suggest any explanation for these contrasting shifts.

Age. In order to compare age-specific changes in delinquent behavior from '67 to '72, the samples were stratified into four yearly cohorts: 13, 14, 15, and 16. These results appear in Tables 5 and 6. The larger differences in the frequencies of delinquent behavior between '67 and '72 occur among the 15 and 16 year old girls. This trend is due mainly to the greater increase in the use of alcohol, marijuana and other drugs by 15 and 16 year old girls. On the other hand, the seriousness of delinquent behavior and Tot Freq-DD change little from age 13 to 16 in the female samples. Among males, the '67-'72 changes across age groups show a somewhat different pattern. At ages 13, 14, and 16 the differences in total frequency and total seriousness at each age level are very similar to the differences in the total sample--i.e., delinquency levels are lower in '72; however, at age 15 we have found that '72 males were slightly more delinquent. While the rise in delinquency at age 15 is not statistically reliable, this result still constitutes an important exception to the dominant

trend among males. Again we have found that the picture changes somewhat when drinking and marijuana and other drug incidents are deleted from the total frequency score: the difference between '67 and '72 fifteen year old males disappears, but at age 13, 14, and 16, the decline in delinquency becomes more striking.

At the level of specific offenses, there is one trend that stands out in both the male and female comparisons. This is the association between age and the increase in the use of alcohol, marijuana and other drugs between 1967 and 1972; these increases are much more pronounced at ages 15 and 16.

Socioeconomic status. Tables 7 and 8 show the comparison between '67 and '72 males and females at three levels of family socioeconomic status (SES). Socioeconomic status derives from a rating of the respondent's father's or mother's (if data for father were not available) occupation. The Duncan Socioeconomic Index was used to establish SES level. For a complete discussion of the index see Reiss.[9] The three SES groups are defined as follow: Low SES, 0 to 29; Medium SES, 30 to 59; High SES, 60 to 96. Examples of some occupations represented in each group are: Low SES, truck drivers and mechanics; Medium SES, policemen and sales clerks; High SES, dentists and teachers. Although the pattern of results observed for all males and females remain substantially unchanged when controlled for SES, some variations are evident within the male sample. Among males there is a drop in overall delinquency from '67 to '72 (as measured by the total frequency, total seriousness and Tot Freq-DD indices) at all SES levels, but the declines tend to be greatest in the lowest SES stratum and smallest

in the highest SES stratum. The offense whose frequency changed the most is the use of marijuana and drugs, which increased reliably ($p < .01$) at each SES level; but the increase was considerably larger in the medium SES stratum than in the lowest SES stratum--in the former group, the number of respondents who reported using marijuana or drugs increased from 2.4 to 26.7 percent, while in the latter group the increase was from 0.7 to 7.8 percent. Among females, on the other hand, the rise in marijuana and drug use is fairly uniform across the three SES strata; and shifts in overall delinquency among females also differ very little or follow no consistent pattern from one SES stratum to another.

Area of residence. The last set of comparisons made in an effort to identify the location of changes in delinquent behavior in the total male and female samples was based on subgroups defined by area of residence. Four categories of residence have been distinguished: (1) urban (or central city), places in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs) with a population of 50,000 or greater; (2) suburban, places in SMSAs with a population of 2,500 to 40,000; (3) towns, places not in SMSAs with a population of 2,500 to 50,000; (4) rural, places not in SMSAs with a population under 2,500. The results of the comparisons within these subgroups are presented in Tables 9 and 10. One deviation from the overall pattern of results occurs among the males from towns. Males in '72 generated slightly higher mean scores on all three summary measures of delinquency, while in the other residence subgroups the '67 mean scores are always higher. However, the increase in delinquency in the town subgroup is far from being statistically

reliable; the most that we have been able to conclude is that the level of delinquent behavior in town areas appears to have remained constant, even when drinking and marijuana use are not counted. The division of the samples by area of residence has also revealed a very striking difference in the change in the use of marijuana and other drugs from '67 to '72. Among males residing in rural areas, the level of marijuana and drug use had not changed and the increase among rural girls was smaller than in any of the other categories. It is also noteworthy that among rural girls there was almost no change in the frequency of drinking, while in other areas the rise in drinking among girls was highly significant.

Summary: Change--1967-1972

The frequency and seriousness of delinquent behavior among American boys 13 to 16 years old in 1972 was lower than the delinquent behavior of that age group in 1967; but the delinquent behavior of girls may have been more frequent in 1972. The substance of the behavior of American adolescents had changed markedly, more of these young people using drugs--mostly marijuana--more frequently in 1972 than their counterparts did in 1967. Indeed, except for this more frequent use of drugs (including alcohol), the delinquent behavior of girls had not increased and the delinquent behavior of boys had actually declined.

The increased use of drugs is most marked among 15 and 16 year olds; among girls the increase is probably limited to that age group. Adolescents from all social strata gave evidence of the same trend, but the increase in the use of drugs seems most sharp among boys of middle status.

Rural boys and girls do not seem to have participated in this shift to drug use.

Why the Shift to Drugs?

Noting that there has been a change in the style of delinquent behavior from 1967 to 1972, the question arises of why. What other changes had taken place among adolescents in that period that might help to explain the shift to drug use from other kinds of delinquent behavior? Our data provide some clues. They suggest that at least part of the increase in young people's use of drugs--and it is important that the reader remember here that we are discussing primarily the use of marijuana--is due to a greater, albeit tacit, tolerance by their parents of such behavior as part of adolescents' social life. Drug use in 1972 became less a symptom of adolescent rebellion that it was in 1967 and more an aspect of typical adolescent activity.

Dating and drug use.

The use of drugs, especially marijuana, is more closely related to heavy involvement in adolescent social life than other kinds of delinquent behavior. In 1972 the correlations between drug use and dating were higher than the correlations between other delinquent behaviors and dating, although more frequent dating is more characteristic of more delinquent adolescents generally (see Table 11). The frequency of dating did not change reliably among boys from 1967 to 1972, so it was probably not more involvement in adolescent social life itself that generated the increase

in drug use among them. Rather, it seems to have been the relevance of those activities to adolescents' relationships with their parents and peers. But we shall see that the effect of parental and peer relationships was felt only among those who reported more frequent dating.

Adolescent autonomy

The amount of autonomy that parents permitted their sons increased significantly from 1967 to 1972 (see Table 12).[10] Our male respondents in the 1972 survey reported that they had more freedom to dress as they pleased and to decide how to spend their spare time than did their '67 counterparts. Furthermore, the relationship between using drugs and relationships with parents changed. The significant fact is that, whereas in 1967 greater autonomy was related to less use of drugs among the boys, in 1972 it was related to more use of drugs. These are the data which suggest that use of drugs among adolescent boys was in 1967 a symptom of rebellion, but not so in 1972.

More striking is the effect of greater autonomy among 15 and 16 year old boys who dated a great deal. These were the boys for whom the relationships between autonomy and drug use shifted most sharply from negative to positive from 1967 to 1972. And, of course, these were the boys who accounted for most of the drug use in both surveys (see Table 12).

But the effect of greater parental autonomy on drug use is specific to the boys in our samples, and it is not crucial for the girls. While girls also reported greater autonomy in 1972, that was not related in

either 1967 or 1972 to their use of drugs (gammas of .03 and .01). What then accounts for the sharp increase in drug use among the 15 and 16 year old girls from 1967 to 1972?

Girls' use of drugs

First of all, we note that these girls may have been dating more frequently in 1972 than their counterparts did in 1967 (Table 11). It should also be pointed out that girls' use of drugs was much more dependent on their association with boys than boys' use was on their association with girls (see Table 13). Relatively few girls used drugs when there were no boys with them; the majority of boys' drug use was in the absence of girls. Furthermore, girls usually got their drugs from boys (see Table 14). It seems the case that more frequent drug use among girls was in part on account of what the boys they went with were doing more often; so the girls went along.

It is likely that the behavior of the 15 and 16 year old boys that we have described was not so relevant to the behavior of the 15 and 16 year old girls, because these girls were probably mixing socially with older boys. That possibility does not weaken our argument that the dependency of girls' use of marijuana and other drugs on the behavior of boys can account for girls' greater use of drugs in 1972. For older boys, 17 and 18 year olds, almost undoubtedly used drugs more in 1972 than they did in 1967. Since no boys over 16 were questioned in the National Survey of Youth '67, all our data can demonstrate directly is that in 1972, 17 and 18 year olds were heavier drug users than younger boys were--52 percent of

these boys used drugs compared to 27 percent of the 15 and 16 year olds. More direct evidence of increasing drug use among older boys in the years up to 1972 comes from the National Commission on Marijuana and Drug Abuse[11] and from the Institute for Social Research project, Youth in Transition.[12] The former study documented an increase of 15 percent more drug users among 18 to 21 year olds (boys and girls) from 1971 to 1972; the latter study found only 21 percent of male high school seniors (most 18 years old) interviewed in 1967 had ever used drugs, compared to the 52 percent of the 17 and 18 year old males in the National Survey of Youth '72. It seems reasonable to conclude then that more of the boys dating the 15 and 16 year old girls were into drugs in 1972 than in 1967.

Perceptions of what other teens were doing

But that is not the whole picture. Among girls as well as among boys, the use of drugs--and again we should remind the reader that we are discussing mostly the use of marijuana--came to be perceived as a more normal adolescent activity. Adolescents' perceptions of how many teenagers used drugs shifted with the change in behavior from 1967 to 1972, so that the later sample reported more drug use among other teenagers (see Table 15).[13] Furthermore, the implications of those perceptions for boys who were dating a great deal shifted from 1967 to 1972: in the earlier sample drug use bore no reliable relationship to perceptions of what teenagers generally were doing, although users and non-users all tended in 1967 to perceive themselves as outside the typical adolescent pattern. By 1972 this relationship had changed markedly; frequency of drug use by socially active teenagers had become consonant with their perceptions of what other teenagers were doing. The significant indication here is that by 1972, social active American adolescents who

used drugs more heavily believed that to be typical teenage behavior; they did not seem to perceive themselves as outsiders.

A Check on the Data: The Rural-Urban Case

We have identified some background conditions and some changes among American adolescents that help to explain why there had been so marked an increase in their use of drugs from 1967 to 1972. The data indicate that the increase in the use of drugs is largely accountable to the behavior of boys and especially girls whose frequent dating demonstrates that they were heavily involved in adolescent social life. Furthermore, the greater drug use among boys in 1972 is reliably correlated with the greater autonomy that they report their parents were granting them, compared to boys in 1967; and with their perception that drug use is more frequent among--typical of--American teenagers.

We may check the importance to drug use of variables such as autonomy from parents, dating behavior, and the perceptions of drug use among teenagers generally by taking another approach to our data. So far we have concerned ourselves only with age and sex difference when comparing respondents in 1967 with those in 1972. We have tested the strength of our analysis partly by determining what variables account for greater change among the older than the younger boys and girls. Having identified certain variables that seem to help us to understand not only the overall changes from 1967 to 1972 but also the differential change by age groups, we may now see if these variables can help account for the fact that adolescents living in rural areas apparently did not participate in the increased use of drugs (see Tables 9 and 10). We find that indeed certain variables that seem

crucial in the previous analysis took a different course among rural adolescents between 1967 and 1972.

To begin with, we have suggested that dating boys is especially important to girls' use of drugs, and that greater use of drugs by girls in 1972 may be a function not only of their dates' heavier use but also more frequent dating by the 15 and 16 year old girls. Now we find that rural 15 and 16 year old girls showed less than half the increase of the others in that time between 1967 and 1972 (see Table 16).

We have pointed to a greater autonomy among 15 to 16 year old boys in 1972 than in 1967 as a factor in boys' greater use of drugs. Now we find that rural boys in the more recent survey did not experience greater autonomy; while their counterparts in nonrural areas reported significantly more, among the rural boys there was essentially no difference in the levels of autonomy granted boys in 1967 and in 1972 (see Table 17).

Furthermore, boys' perceptions of more frequent drug use by teenagers in 1972 suggest that drug use had become more normative since 1967 and that that had encouraged their indulgence. Among rural boys, however, that perception had not increased so markedly (see Table 18). It might be argued that this pattern of data is merely a reflection of the facts rather than a cause. That may be so, of course, but the wording of the question put to our respondents referred to "all teenagers," not the ones they knew personally. We were trying here to guage adolescents' perceptions of delinquent norms as they were shaped not only by their direct observation but also by hearsay among their peers and by the mass media. It seems plaus-

ible that rural boys compared to their urban peers had not come by 1972 to believe that using drugs was the teenage thing to do.

This examination of rural-urban differences together with some correlates of drug use help to confirm our interpretation of the shift to drug use from 1967 to 1972. For just those variables which help to account for the shift among the 15 and 16 year old boys and girls, among whom the shift is most marked, also show no relevant change among the rural adolescents whose drug use was not markedly greater in 1972.

Discussion

What happened to the teenage crime wave?

There is no surprise, we are certain, in the finding that more American adolescents were illegally using drugs in 1972 than were in 1967. What may be surprising to many readers however is that the overall rate of delinquency did not skyrocket during that time. Newspapers and magazines continuously reported that delinquency was rising during those years, and since. But we have seen that, according to the reports of the adolescents themselves, the frequency and seriousness of delinquent behavior did not rise. More precisely, delinquent behavior declined among boys, who were responsible for most of the delinquent behavior, and rose only slightly among the girls.

The difference of course lies in the sources of the data. Journalistic accounts of the rise in youthful crime reflected official data such as the F.B.I. Uniform Crime Reports and the records of metropolitan law enforcement agencies. Changes in rates might be accounted for by changes in record-

keeping procedures, changes in definitions or policies relating to juvenile offenders, and other reasons, including even deliberate distortion of the data for political purposes. Official data on delinquency are tied so loosely to the actual behavior of youth that they are more sensitive to the changes in the measurement procedures than they are to the object of measurement.

Self-reported delinquent behavior is not by any means a perfect guage of delinquency among adolescents. We know that some respondents conceal or minimize their delinquent behavior, and we know that some distortion is introduced in the recording of youngsters' confessions and in translating them into terms with which computers can deal. But we have taken great care to keep our samples and our measuring procedures as nearly identical from one time period to the next so that these sources of error would be constants in the data. And we have no reason to believe that youth became any more or less likely to report what they had done in the intervening years. It seems to us that the data we have reported here approximate as closely as any available the real levels and nature of delinquent behavior in the years under consideration. And they simply do not testify to rapidly rising rates of juvenile delinquency.

What of the "dope leads to crime" theory?

For many, another surprise in these data resides in the fact that while the illicit use of drugs increased among American adolescents, there was not a corresponding increase in other types of juvenile crimes. What we have found rather is a shift from other offenses to the use of drugs, at least among the boys.

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It has been plausible to believe that an increase in the use of drugs would cause more delinquency. For example, young people need money in order

to purchase drugs and so they might be supposed to steal for the purpose. For another example, one might suppose that youngsters would be more irresponsible while high and would run away, destroy property, fight and commit other crimes when they were out of control. Apparently, however, this is not the case.

What seems more plausible in light of these data is that some youngsters are more motivated than others to participate in deviant acts and which kind of act does not seem to matter so much as its deviant stamp, the opportunity to participate, and the likely consequences, positive and negative. The illicit use of drugs serves the purpose as well as other offenses and is substitutable for them.

Indeed, the rise in drug use and concomitant decline in some other offenses among boys suggests that from 1967 to 1972 the use of drugs became more satisfying to the deviant adolescent appetite than other offenses were. This is an interesting phenomenon and deserves some attention for what it might tell us about the nature of deviancy generally.

It would be well to remind ourselves of the point underlying Sutherland's[14] concept of differential association--that even deviancy has social support. We may usefully posit a certain range in the spectrum of deviant acts within which lie those acts that are clearly deviant but not so deviant as to make their perpetrators pariahs. An individual who is motivated to adopt the deviant role will find behaviors in this range most attractive because their commission will create the desired reputation for him without threatening him with extremely punishing consequences. We suggest that the illicit use of drugs, most particularly marijuana, moved into that range of deviant acts between 1967 and 1972 and was therefore adopted by more adolescents.

We have already presented some data which suggest that, at least from adolescents' perceptions, parents and peers were not so horrified by their use of drugs. There are the data which demonstrate that, in contrast to the situation in 1967, adolescents who reported in 1972 that their parents granted them more peer-oriented autonomy were more likely to use drugs. The negative correlation in 1967 seems much more like rebellion against parental restrictions in comparison. There are also the data that relate perception of teenagers' use of drugs negatively to a youngster's own use in 1967 and positively in 1972.

Another set of data point to the same hypothesis. Whereas in 1967, poor relationships with their parents[15] was more strongly related to using drugs than other delinquent acts were, by 1972 this was no longer the case (see Table 19). The correlations between drug use and relationships with parents, while still statistically reliable, had declined to the level of other offenses. The horror that marijuana use had been, had come to seem more tame, not unlike other kinds of delinquent behavior. It no longer required such extreme alienation from parents before it was, in a sense, permitted.

In short, Science and experience had eroded the marijuana stereotype. We believe that this had occurred among American adults and most pertinent here, among American parents. If it had not, we doubt that adolescents would have taken up drug use to the degree that they had by 1972.

The function of parents in delinquent behavior

There may be in this analysis of the situation some indications of the general function parents play in the etiology of delinquent behavior. Gen-

erally speaking, relationships with parents, like many other variables, may serve either to provoke delinquent behavior or to restrain it. The increase in drug use while the incidence of other kinds of delinquency declined (among boys) or remained stable (among girls), suggests that it figures more strongly as a factor of restraint than as one of provocation. While there may be some delinquent behaviors which depend more heavily on parental provocation--running away comes to mind--most delinquency may be provoked by forces other than relationships with parents, and its ocurrence may involve parents primarily insofar as relationships with them permit it. Relationships with parents may permit delinquent behavior in two ways: they may be so poor that they provide weak restraints; or they may not be threatened very much by delinquent behavior. It is mostly in the latter way that we believe parents figure in the greater frequency of drug use in 1972, by not seeming to their adolescents to be so vehemently opposed to it then. We suggest that boys' relationships with their parents were not so provocative of drug use in 1972 as they were permissive. The implication here is that even in the decision as to whether and how to act delinquent, adolescents generally taken their parents into consideration.

Another facet of the data in Table 19 should be noted. Boys in 1972 reported more distant relationships with their parents than did boys in 1967. Nevertheless, despite the general negative correlation between relationships with parents and delinquent behavior, boys' delinquent behavior declined. Perhaps the rift between parents and their adolescent sons in 1972, while wide enough to be statistically different from 1967, was not so much wider as to have an elevating effect on delinquent behavior. But this is instructive. Delinquent behavior seems not so sensitive to changes in parent-

adolescent relationships. The American public generally, and some of those responsible for treating and preventing delinquency as well, lean heavily on the factor of parent-adolescent relationships in their beliefs and practice. Important though it is, it is not by any means the sole component in the etiological equation.

FOOTNOTES

1. Both surveys were conducted under the general direction of Dr. Martin Gold. Dr. Jay R. Williams, now with the Triangle Research Institute of Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, was the Study Director responsible for the 1967 survey, and Dr. Reimer, for the 1972 survey.
2. Williams, J. R., and Gold, M. From delinquent behavior to official delinquency. Social Problems, 1972, 20(2), 209-229.
3. Kish, L., and Hess, I. The Survey Research Center's National Sample of Dwellings. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Institute for Social Research, 1965.
4. Reiss, A. J. Occupations and Social Status. New York: Free Press, 1961.
5. Kish, L. A procedure for objective respondent selection within the household. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 1949, 44, 380-387.
6. Cochran, W. G. Sampling Techniques (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1963.
7. Gold, M. Delinquent Behavior in an American City. Belmont, Calif.: Brooks/Cole, 1970.
8. Sellin, T., and Wolfgang, M. E. The Measurement of Delinquency. New York: Wiley, 1964.
9. Reiss, supra note 4.
10. The measure of autonomy referred to here is one that emerged from a factor analysis of items describing respondent's relationships with their parents. The items are:

    my father lets me dress in any way I please

    my mother lets me dress in any way I please

    my father tells me how to spend my spare time

    my mother tells me how to spend my spare time

FOOTNOTES (cont.)

10. (cont.)

Factor loadings were similar enough so that simple summation of responses to items are fair indications of the degree of autonomy that respondents reported that they enjoyed. The items make clear that this measure of autonomy has mainly to do with participation in an independent teen social life.

11. National Commission on Marihuana and Drug Abuse. Drug Use in America: Problem in Perspective. Vol. I. Appendix, p. 115. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

12. Johnston, L. D. Drugs and American Youth. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Institute for Social Research, 1973.

13. Each respondent was asked to report his estimate of how many (out of every 10) of all teenagers and how many (out of every 10) of his friends committed each of a set of 17 offenses. These 17 are, with two exceptions, identical to the ones he had been asked concerning himself (see Figure 1): this list combines the use of marijuana and other illicit drugs and also includes sexual behavior--"going all the way with a member of the opposite sex." An index of perception of teens' delinquency and in index of perception of friends' delinquency have been computed by averaging individuals' estimates over all offenses.

14. Sutherland, E. H. Principles of Criminology. New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1947.

15. Respondents were asked to sort 24 pre-punched Hollerith cards into five piles, ranging from "almost always true" to "never true." Each card carried a statement about the behavior of his father or mother or about his feelings about his father or mother. Factor analyses

FOOTNOTES (cont.)

15. (cont.)

on NSY '67 data and on data from NSY '72 identified two factors indicative of the closeness of parent-child relationships.

-Father affection

my father gives me the right amount of affection

my father accepts and understands me as a person

my father and I do things together that we both enjoy doing

I agree with my father's ideas and opinions about things

I want to be like my father

my father makes it easy for me to confide in him

I feel close to my father

The factor loadings on these items were similar enough so that we judged there was no need to weight them differentially in an index; we merely summed the responses to them, assigning no score to respondents who omitted any items.

-Mother affection. Factor analysis generated almost the identical set of items--worded for "mother"--as an index of mother affection. This index includes the item, "as I was growing up my mother tried to help me when I was scared or upset," instead of the second item under father affection (above).

Figure 1

Brief Title	Delinquent Behavior Items
1. Run Away	Ran away from home.
2. Hit Parent	Hit one of your parents.
3. Truancy	Skipped a day of school without a real excuse.
4. Property Destruction	Purposely damaged or messed up something not belonging to you.
5. Fraud	Tried to get something by lying about who you were or how old you were.
6. Confidence Game	Tried to get something by lying to a person about what you would do for him.
7. Theft	Took something not belonging to you, even if returned.
8. Assault	Hurt or injured someone on purpose.
9. Threat	Threatened to hurt or injure someone.
10. Trespass	Went onto someone's property when you knew you were not supposed to.
11. Enter	Went into a house or building when you knew you were not supposed to.
12. Drink	Drank beer, wine, or liquor without your parents' permission.
13. Use Marijuana	Smoked marijuana.
14. Use Other Drugs	Used any drugs or chemicals to get high or for kicks, except marijuana.
15. Gang Fight	Took part in a fight where a bunch of your friends were against another bunch.
16. Concealed Weapon	Carried a gun or knife besides an ordinary pocketknife.
17. Take Car	Took a car without the permission of the owner even if the car was returned.
18. Use MJ/Drugs	Based on items 13 and 14.

*The range of scores on each item is 0 to 3 incidents. Although the range for Use MJ/Drugs could have been 0-6, its range was restricted to 0-3 so that it would be comparable to the NSY '67 drug use index, which is based on a single item ("Used any drugs or chemicals to get high").

Figure 2

Seriousness Weights Assigned Offenses, with Qualifying Characteristics

Offense	Characteristics		Seriousness Weight
Hit one of your parents	extent of injury not ascertained		0
	left a mark or required minor care		1
	required major care		4
	required hospitalization or fatal		7
Purposely damaged or messed up something not belonging to you	cost of damage: less than $5 or not known		1
	$5 or more		2
Hurt or injured someone on purpose	extent of injury: left a mark, or required minor care; or unknown	weapon: any; or bare hands, feet, or object not made as a weapon	1
	required major care; or unknown	any; or used a weapon	4
	required hospitalization or fatal	any	7
Threatened to hurt or injure someone	nature of threat to beat up with bare hands, feet, or other threat not listed below		2
	to hit with an object made as a weapon, or to use a weapon		4

Figure 2 (continued)

Offense	Characteristics		Seriousness Weight
Went into a house or building when you knew you were not supposed to (breaking and entering)	how entered: broke lock or glass, or forced door		1
Took part in a fight where a bunch of your friends were against another bunch	extent of injury: left a mark, or required minor care	weapon: any	
	or		
	unknown	bare hands, feet, or object not made as a weapon	1
	required major care	any	
	or		
	unknown	used a weapon	4
	required hospitalization or fatal	any	7
Took a car without the permission of the owner even if the car was returned	(no distinction made)		2
Took something not belonging to you, even if returned	value of item:	force used:	
	less than $5 or unknown	none, or unknown	1
	$5 or more	none, or unknown	1
	less than $5 or unknown	some, but no weapon used	3
	$5 or more	some, but no weapon used	4
	less than $5	weapon used	5
	$5 or more	weapon used	6

FIGURE 3

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY - MALES

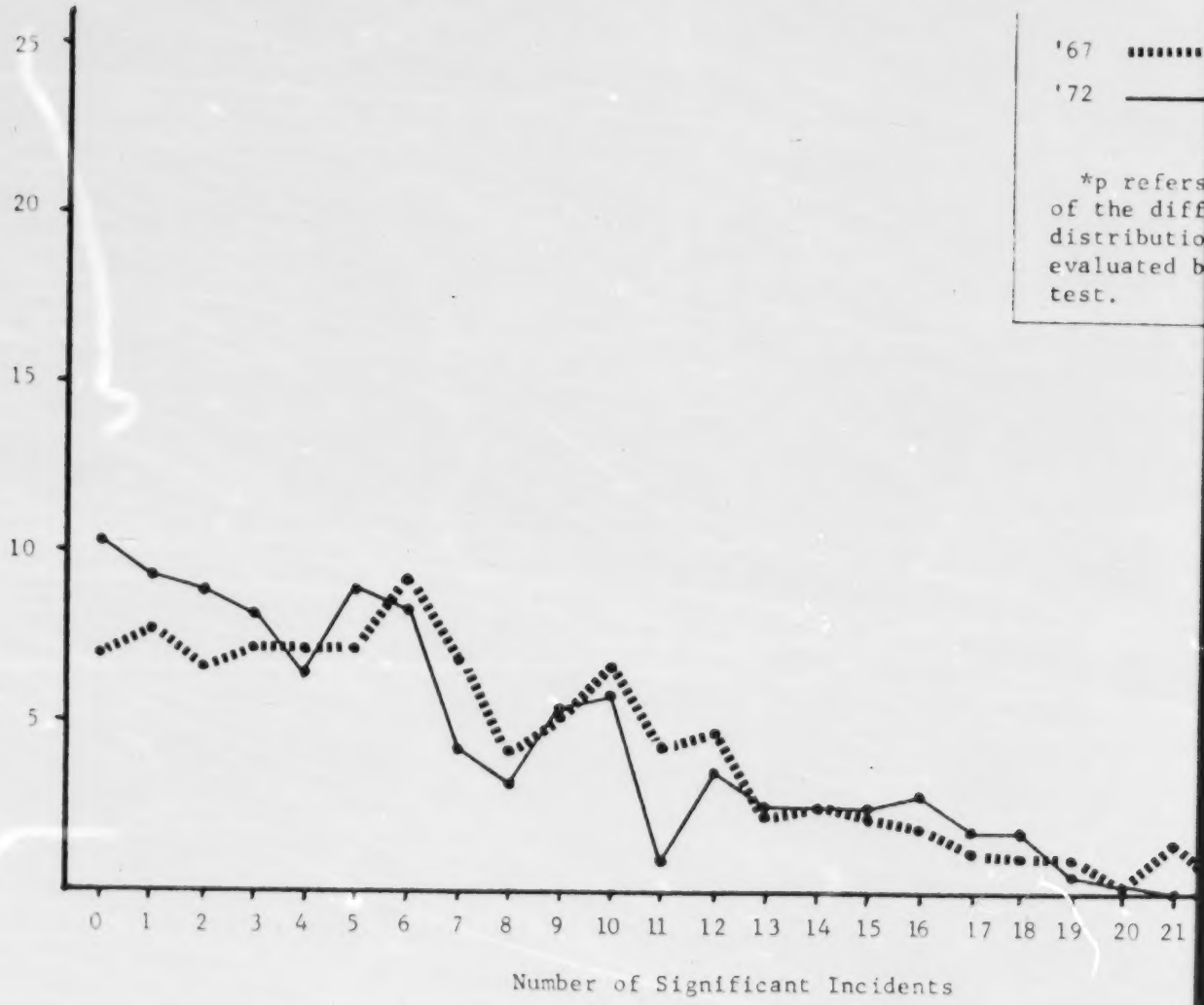
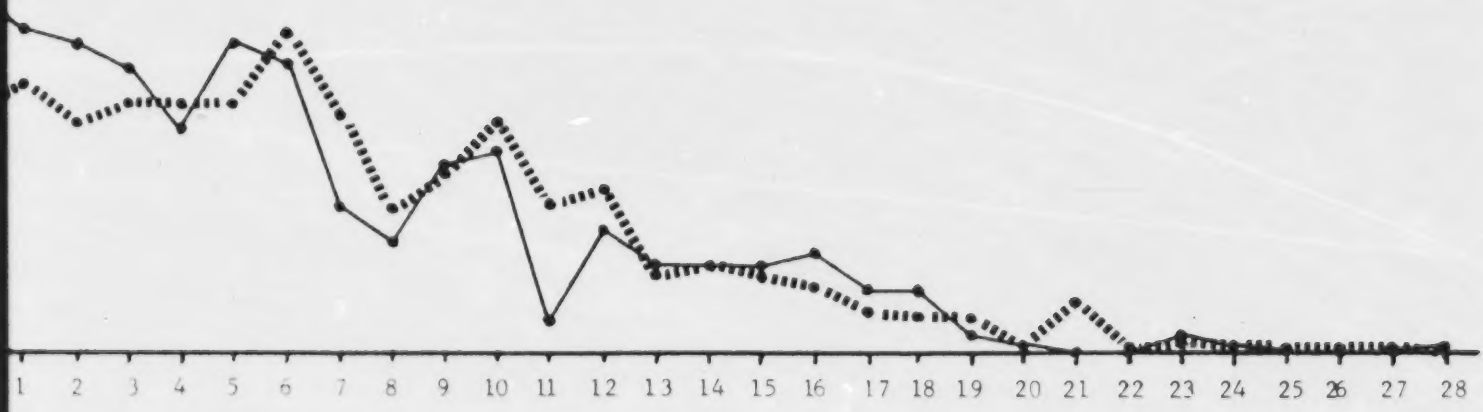


FIGURE 3

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY - MALES

		MEANS
'67	▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪	7.3
'72	———	6.6
		p* = .03

*p refers to the significance of the difference between the distribution of '67 and '72 scores evaluated by the Mann-Whitney U test.



Number of Significant Incidents

FIGURE 4

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF SERIOUSNESS OF DELINQUEN

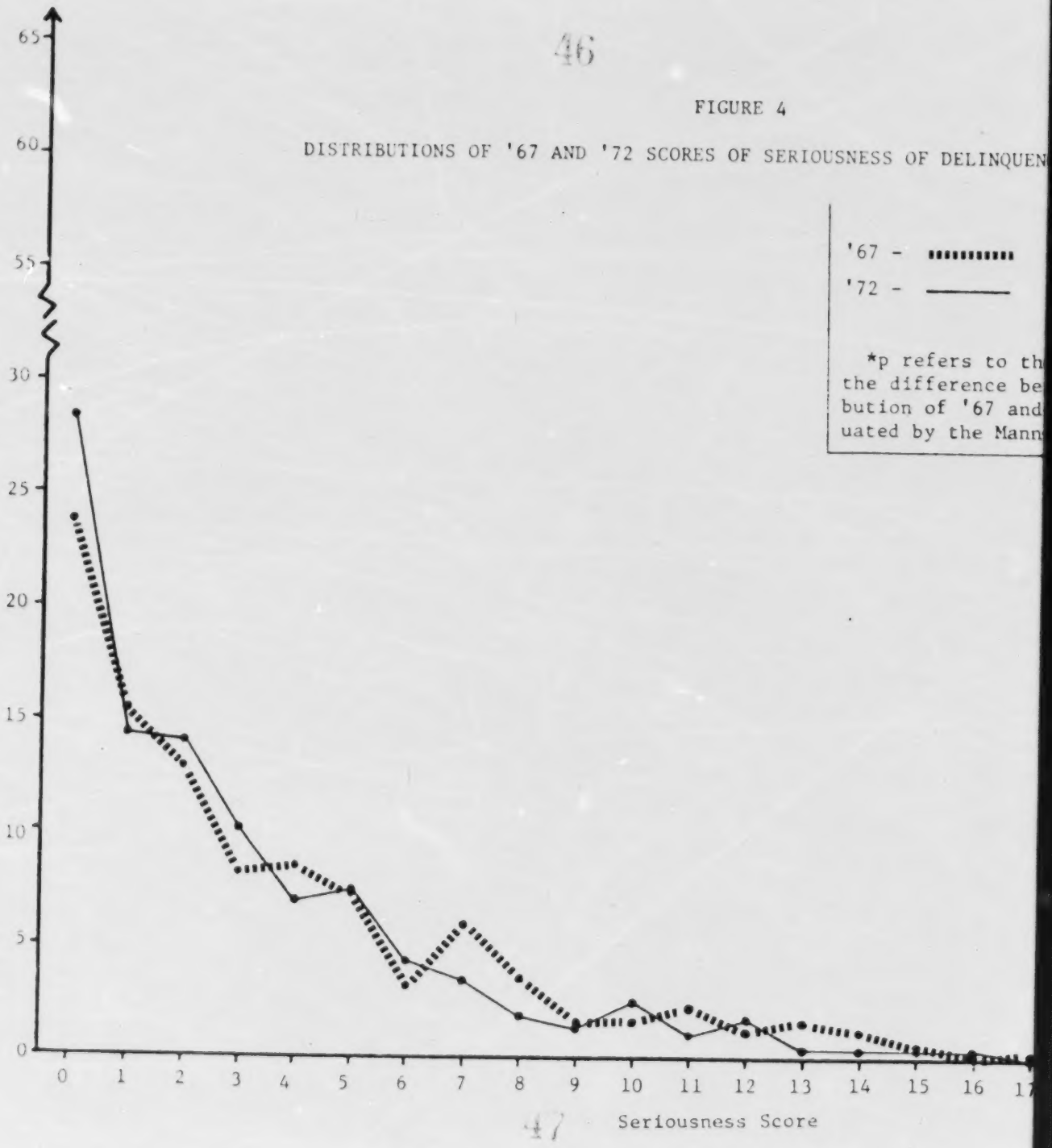


FIGURE 4

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF SERIOUSNESS OF DELINQUENCY - MALES

	MEANS
'67 - ▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪	3.6
'72 - ———	3.1
	p* = .08

*p refers to the significance of the difference between the distribution of '67 and '72 scores evaluated by the Mann-Whitney U test.

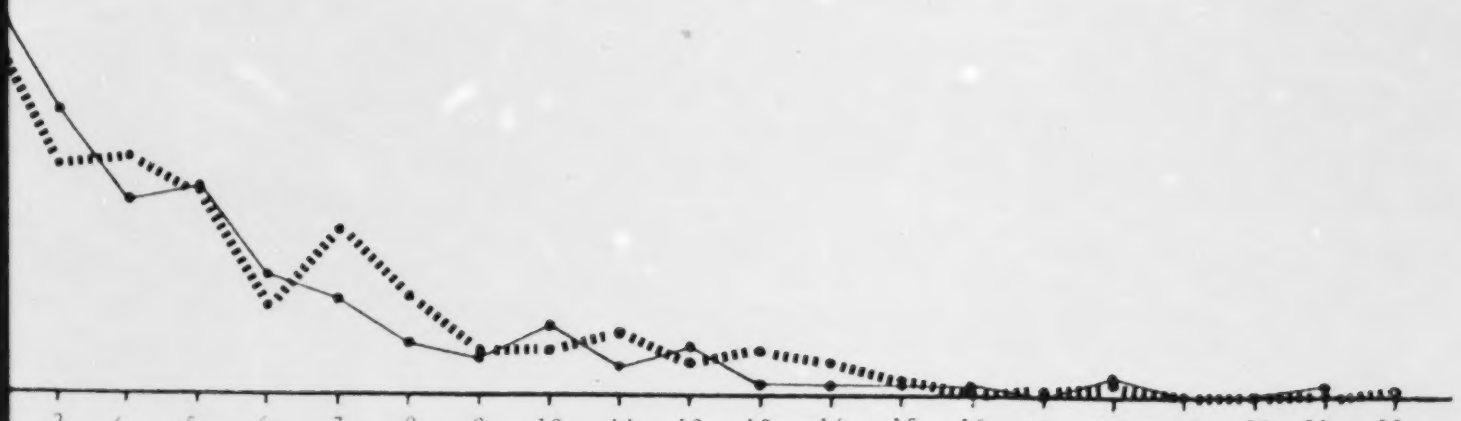


FIGURE 5

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFI
DELINQUENCY, EXCLUDING DRINKING AND USING DRUGS - MALES

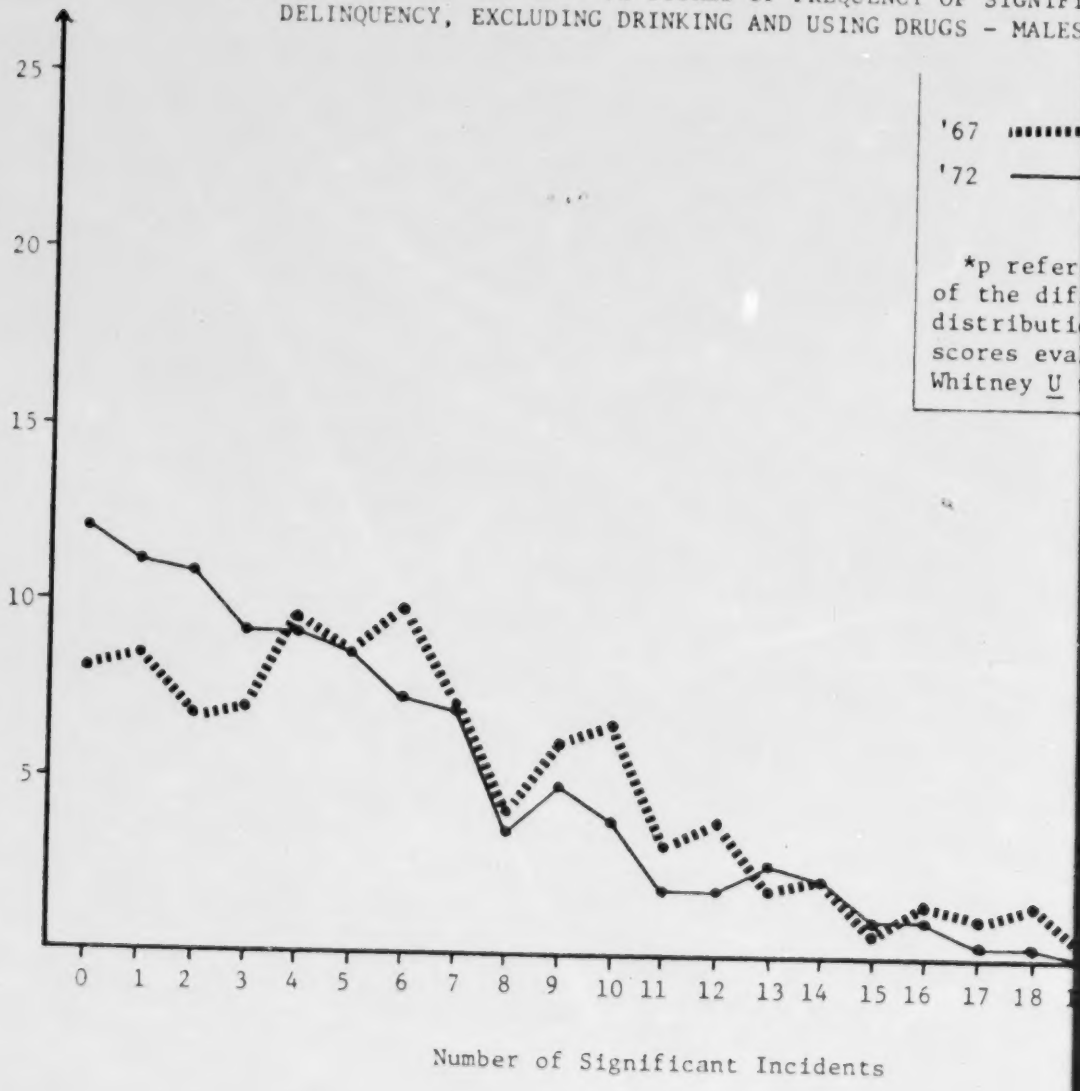
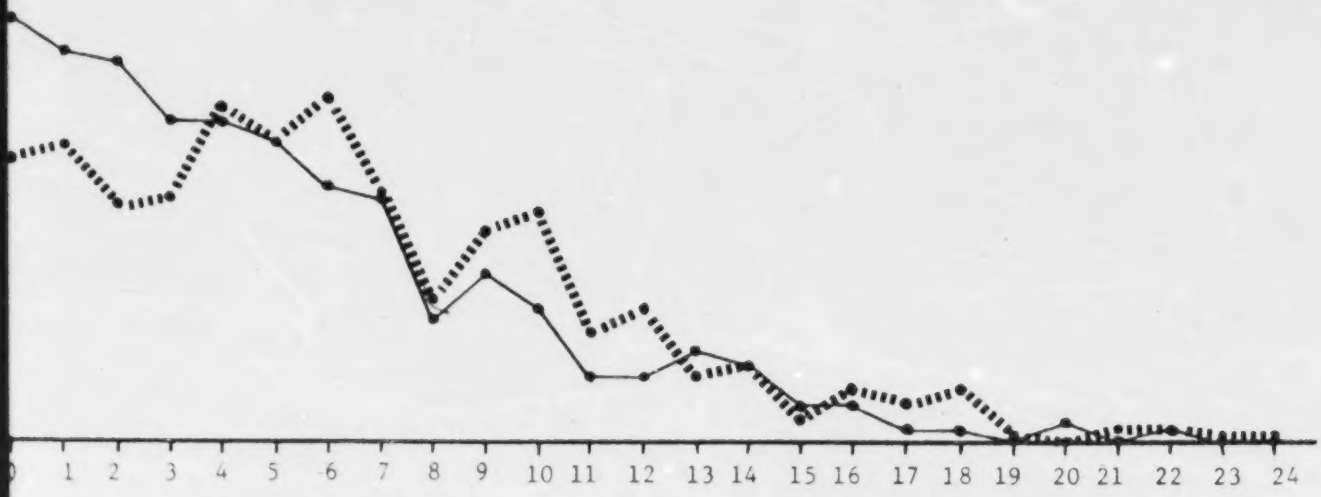


FIGURE 5

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY, EXCLUDING DRINKING AND USING DRUGS - MALES

	MEANS
'67 ▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪	6.38
'72 ———	5.13
	p* = .001

*p refers to the significance of the difference between the distribution of '67 and '72 scores evaluated by the Mann-Whitney U test.



Number of Significant Incidents

FIGURE 6

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY - FEMALES

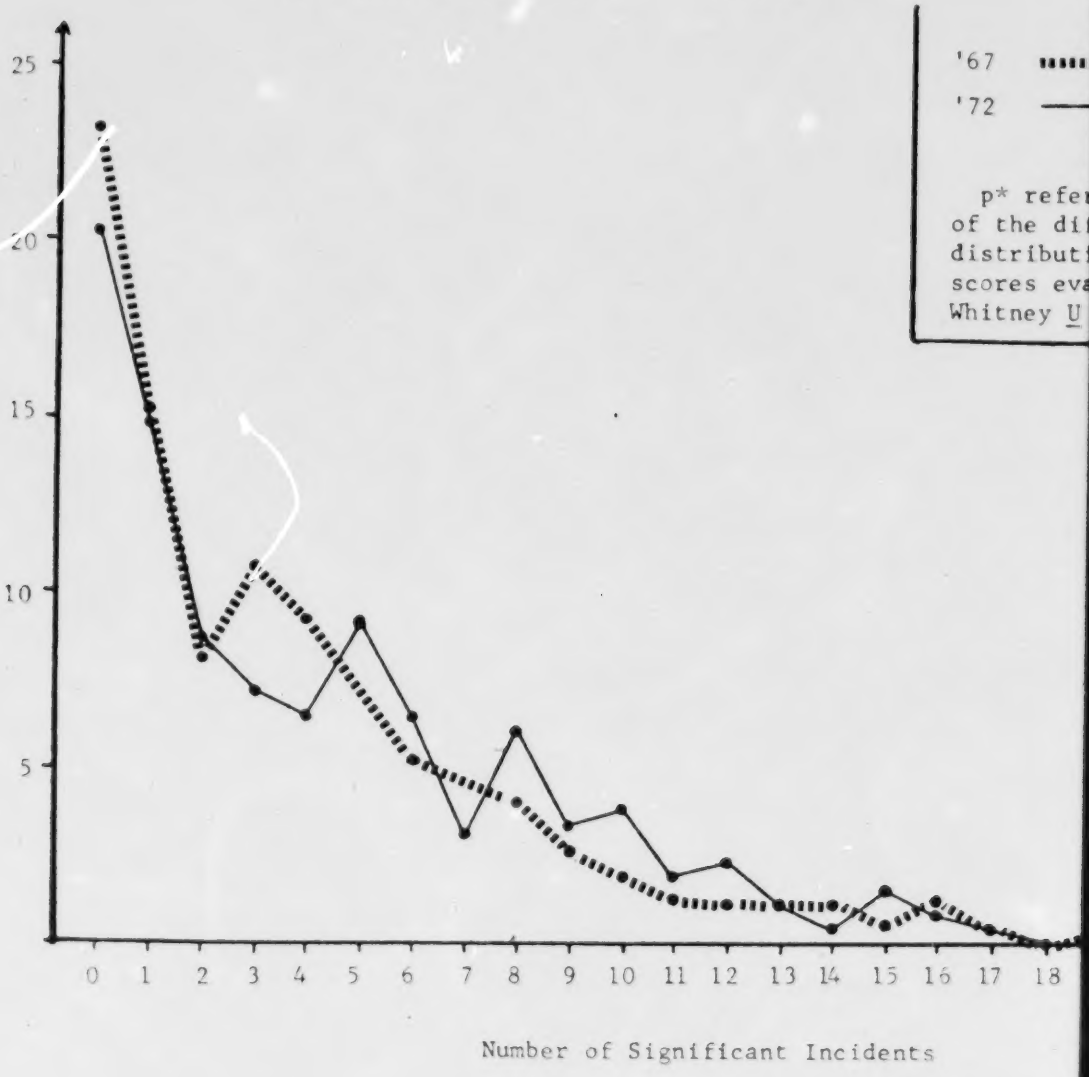


FIGURE 6

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY - FEMALES

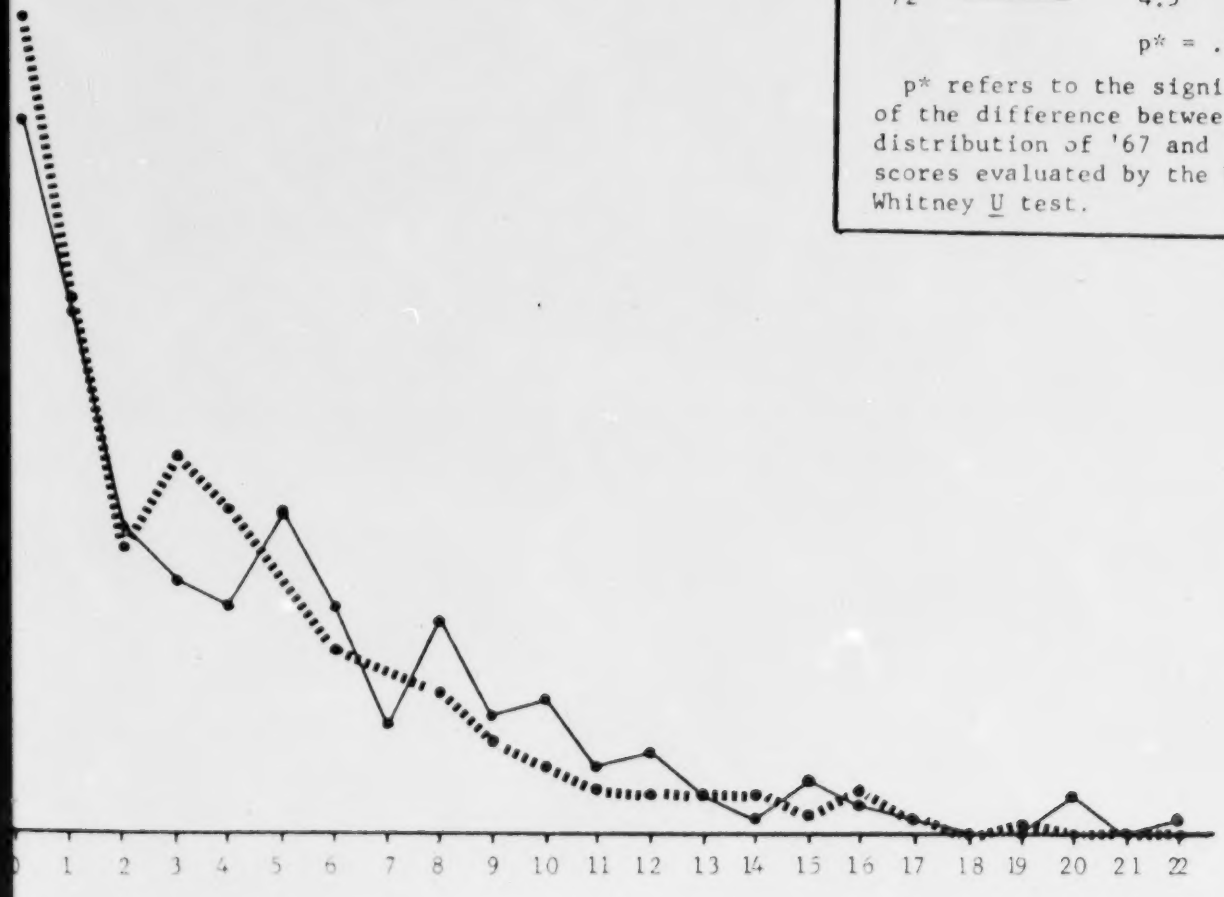

MEANS
'67 3.7
'72 4.5
p* = .05
p* refers to the significance of the difference between the distribution of '67 and '72 scores evaluated by the Mann-Whitney U test.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22
Number of Significant Incidents

FIGURE 7

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF SERIOUSNESS OF DELINQUEN

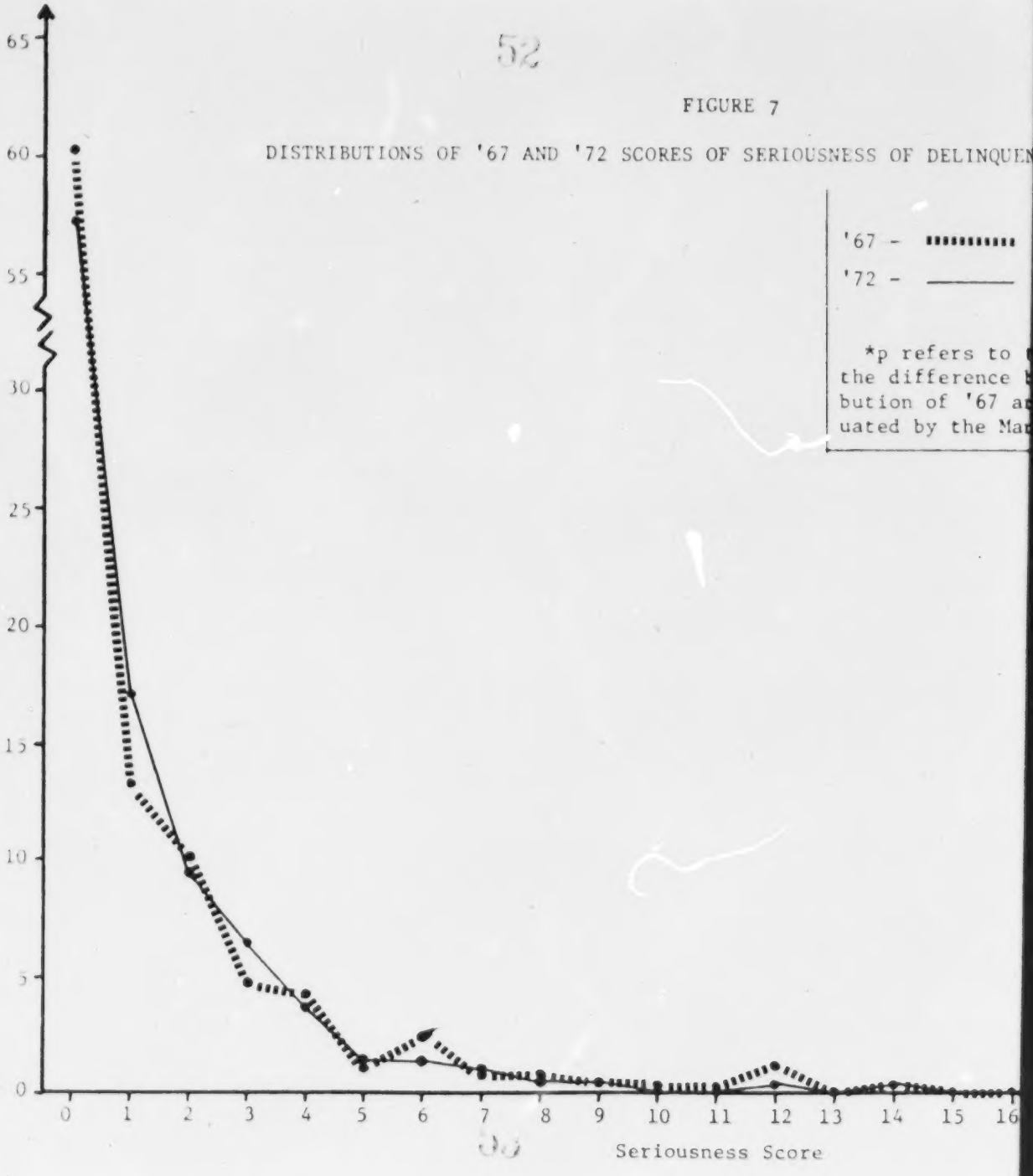


FIGURE 7

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF SERIOUSNESS OF DELINQUENCY - FEMALES

	MEANS
'67 - ▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪▪	1.3
'72 - ———	1.1
	p* = .68

*p refers to the significance of the difference between the distribution of '67 and '72 scores evaluated by the Mann-Whitney U test.

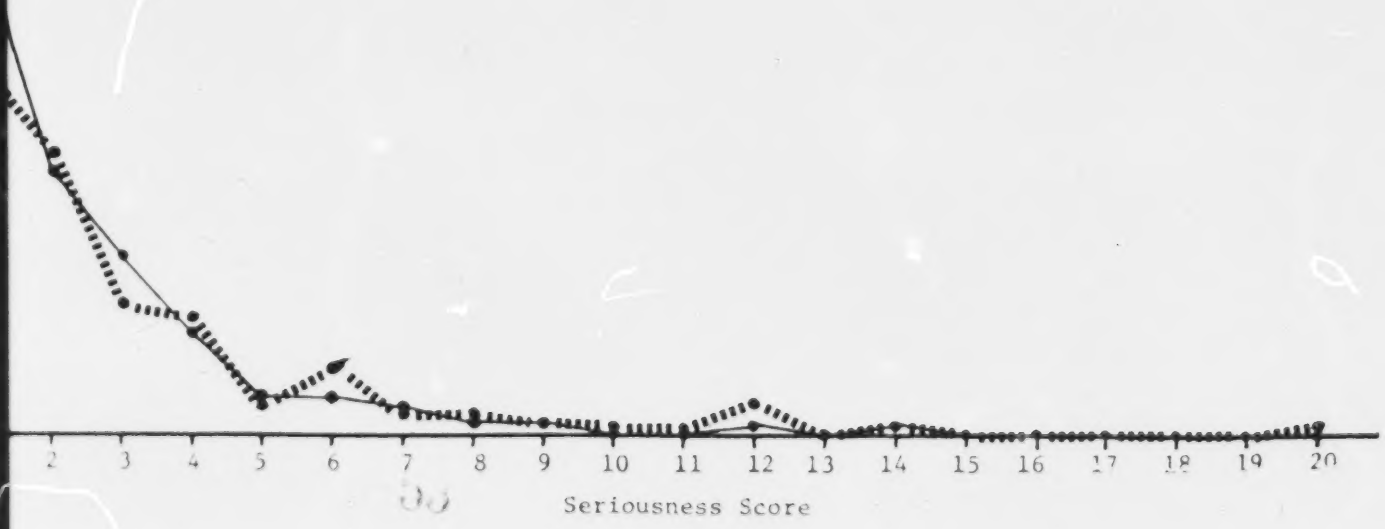


FIGURE 8

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY, EXCLUDING DRINKING AND USING DRUGS - FEMALES

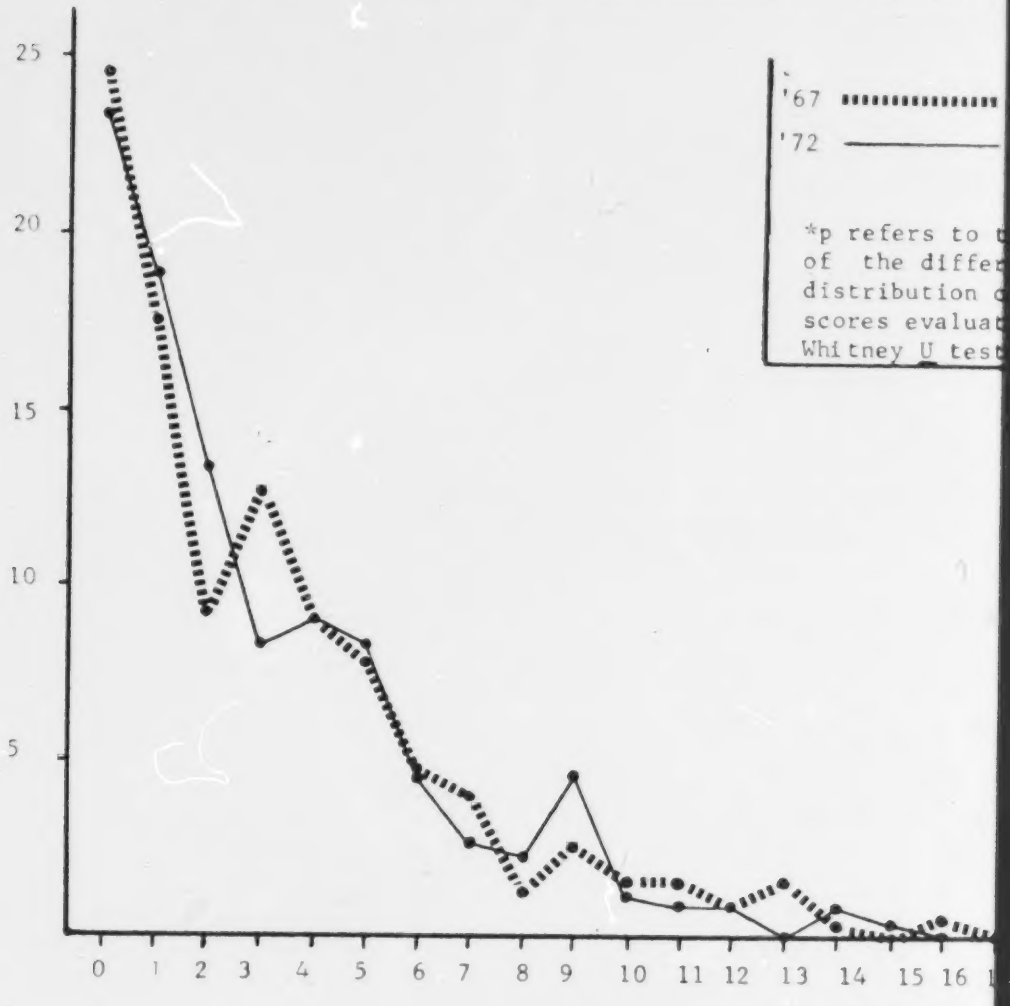


FIGURE 8

DISTRIBUTIONS OF '67 AND '72 SCORES OF FREQUENCY OF SIGNIFICANT DELINQUENCY, EXCLUDING DRINKING AND USING DRUGS - FEMALES

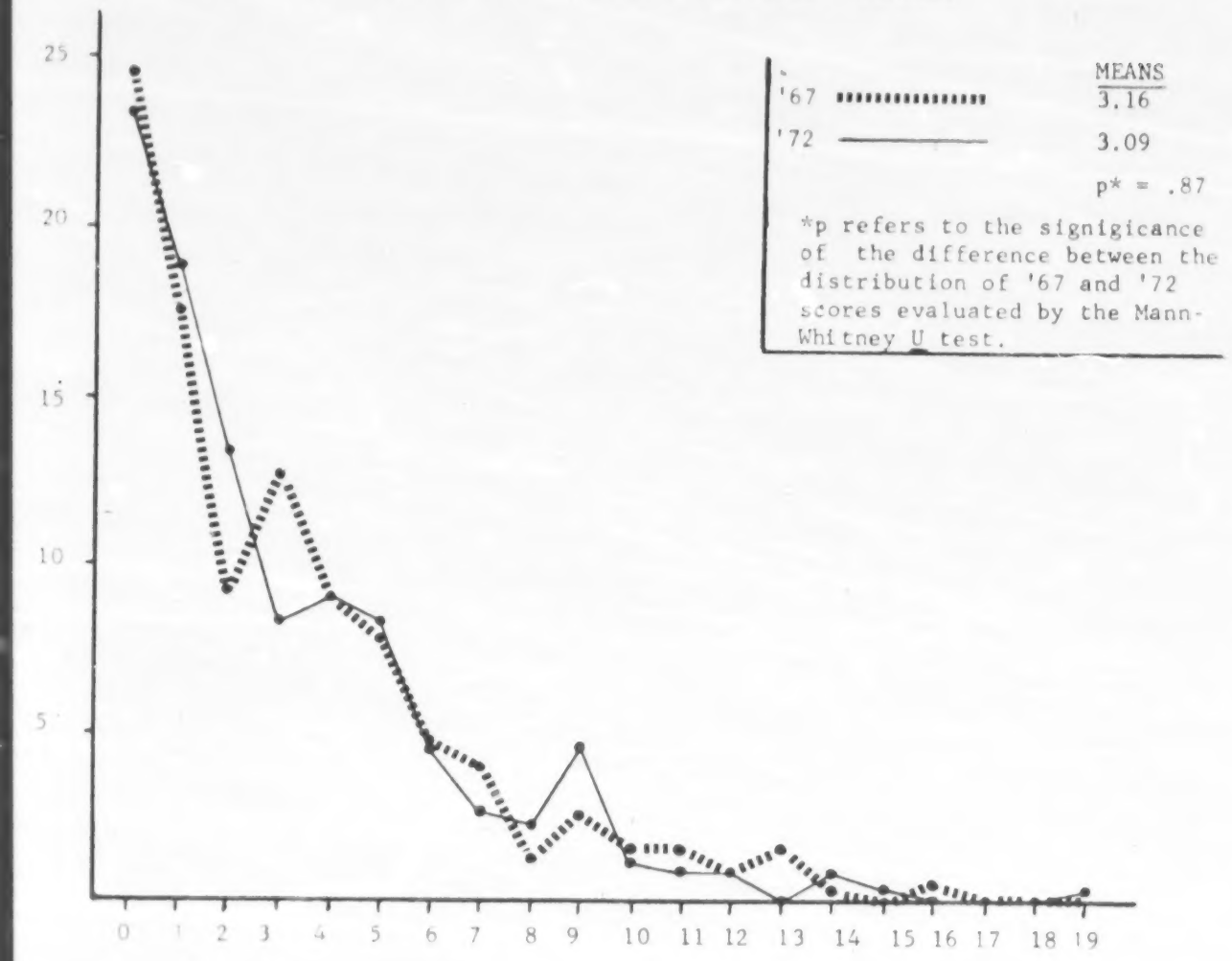

25
20
15
10
5
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19
Number of Significant Incidents
'67
'72
MEANS
3.16
3.09
p* = .87
*p refers to the signigicance of the difference between the distribution of '67 and '72 scores evaluated by the Mann-Whitney U test.

TABLE 1

SAMPLE AND POPULATION DISTRIBUTIONS FOR SEX, AGE AND RACE BY SEX

	SEX		AGE							
	Male	Female	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Sample Frequency	720	675	195	206	169	150	169	173	198	135
Sample Percent	51.6	48.4	14.0	14.8	12.1	10.8	12.1	12.4	14.2	9.7
Population Percent[1]	50.9	49.1	12.6	13.0	12.6	12.7	12.5	12.5	12.3	11.9

RACE BY SEX

	MALES			FEMALES			Missing Data
	White	Black	Other	White	Black	Other	
Sample Frequency	602	87	19	537	95	31	24
Sample Percent	85.0	12.3	2.7	81.0	14.3	4.7	
Population Percent[1]	85.3	13.3	1.4	84.8	13.7	1.5	

[1]Based on 1970 Census data.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTIONS FOR SEX, AGE AND RACE BY SEX IN THE '67 AND '72 SAMPLES

	SEX			AGE				
	Male	Female	T	13	14	15	16	T
1967								
Sample Frequency	469	378	847	155	220	242	260	847
Sample Percent	55.4	44.6	100	18.3	26.0	28.6	27.1	100
1972								
Sample Frequency	354	307	659	169	150	169	173	661
Sample Percent	53.6	46.4	100	25.6	22.7	25.6	26.2	100

RACE BY SEX

	MALES				FEMALES				
	White	Black	Other	T	White	Black	Other	NA	T
1967									
Sample Frequency	408	53	8	409	328	48	2	0	378
Sample Percent	87.0	11.3	1.7	100	86.8	12.7	.5		100
1972									
Sample Frequency	300	40	7	347	233	53	14	7	307
Sample Percent	86.5	11.5	2.0	100	77.7	17.7	4.6	*	100

*not included in percentage.

TABLE 3

Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita by Race[1]

Males

Offense/Index	White		Black	
	67	72	67	72
	n = 408	270	53	33
Run Away	.06	.11	.06	.06
Hit Parent	.11	.12	.06	.06
Truancy	.78	.73	1.1	.94
Property Destruction	.63	.56	.87	.49(b)
Fraud	.35	.32	.40	.46
for money/goods	.02	.02	.06	.15(a)
for alcohol	.05	.12(d)	.04	.15
Confidence Game	.13	.12	.21	.30
Theft	.75	.66	.64	.79
Shoplifting	.26	.23	.11	.15
Larceny	.50	.30(d)	.43	.27
Burglary	.03	.06	.11	.09
Robbery	.03	.01	-0-	.24(d)
Assault	.65	.52(a)	.49	.76
Threat	.52	.26(d)	.36	.30
Extortion	.01	-0-	-0-	.03
Trespass	.99	.72(d)	.79	.64
Enter	.65	.45(d)	.57	.27(b)
Break and Enter	.20	.10(d)	.19	.09
Drink	.93	1.1(a)	.64	.73
Gang Fight	.42	.29(d)	.66	.30(c)
Concealed Weapon	.14	.14	.49	.15(c)
Take Car	.09	.13	.08	.06
Use MJ/Drugs	.04	.42(d)	.06	.33(b)
Total Frequency	7.2	6.6(b)	7.5	6.6
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	6.3	5.1(d)	6.8	5.6(a)
Total Seriousness[2]	3.5	3.0	4.1	4.1

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test, are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) $p \leq .01$.

[2]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 4

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita by Race[1]

Females

Offense/Index	White		Black	
	67	72	67	72
	n = 328	211	48	34
Run Away	.08	.08	.04	.04
Hit Parent	.14	.11	.04	.04
Truancy	.62	.69	.48	.69
Property Destruction	.22	.17	.44	.20(a)
Fraud	.29	.37	.29	.40
for money/goods	.02	.01	-0-	-0-
for alcohol	.02	.10(c)	-0-	.02
Confidence Game	.06	.05	.10	.18
Theft	.32	.40	.27	.42
Shoplifting	.11	.20(c)	.06	.16
Larceny	.26	.16(b)	.38	.24
Burglary	.02	.01	-0-	-0-
Robbery	.02	.01	-0-	.02
Assault	.18	.08(c)	.35	.24
Threat	.19	.08(c)	.21	.27
Extortion	-0-	-0-	.02	-0-
Trespass	.38	.50(a)	.31	.27
Enter	.44	.38	.42	.29
Break and Enter	.12	.06(c)	.17	.07
Drink	.53	1.0(d)	.23	.51(b)
Gang Fight	.10	.09	.54	.20(c)
Concealed Weapon	.02	.02	-0-	.27(d)
Take Car	.04	.03	.02	.02
Use MJ/Drugs	.05	.51(d)	-0-	.09(b)
Total Frequency	3.7	4.6(c)	3.8	4.1
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	3.1	3.0	3.5	3.7
Total Seriousness[2]	1.1	1.0	2.3	2.0

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test, are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) p $\leq$ .01.

[2]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 5

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita by Age[1]

Males

Offense/Index	13		14		15		16	
	67	72	67	72	67	72	67	72
	n = 84	85	128	83	132	85	125	89
Run Away	.04	.05	.05	.08	.07	.15(a)	.10	.10
Hit Parent	.14	.15	.09	.08	.13	.11	.08	.11
Truancy	.43	.47	.57	.42	.84	.97	1.4	1.1(c)
Property Destruction	.57	.39	.71	.45(c)	.55	.73(c)	.78	.57(b)
Fraud	.21	.22	.29	.13(a)	.35	.35	.51	.63
for money/goods	-0-	.04(b)	.05	.01	.02	.04	.02	.02
for alcohol	-0-	.04	.02	.01	.05	.12	.10	.30(d)
Confidence Game	.12	.07	.14	.21	.15	.11	.16	.14
Theft	.73	.61	.70	.43(c)	.70	.86	.83	.70
Shoplifting	.25	.21	.23	.12(c)	.27	.28	.23	.24
Larceny	.54	.28(b)	.59	.22(d)	.37	.39	.50	.29(c)
Burglary	-0-	.01	.02	.02	.05	.11	.08	.09
Robbery	.02	.06	.05	.04	.01	-0-	.04	.05
Assault	.62	.57	.62	.61	.63	.55	.64	.44(a)
Threat	.44	.29	.55	.25(c)	.56	.25(d)	.45	.23(c)
Extortion	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-
Trespass	.91	.65(c)	1.0	.81	.96	.77	.97	.57(d)
Enter	.66	.41(c)	.74	.36(d)	.51	.58	.69	.43(d)
Break and Enter	.20	.06(c)	.24	.04(d)	.13	.17	.23	.12(a)
Drink	.39	.53	.52	.58	.96	1.5(d)	1.6	1.4(a)
Gang Fight	.36	.27	.34	.27(a)	.51	.38	.55	.36(c)
Concealed Weapon	.16	.07	.16	.08(a)	.17	.19	.24	.18
Take Car	.01	.01	.07	-0-(c)	.07	.19	.19	.21
Use MJ/Drugs	-0-	.12(c)	.01	.11(c)	.08	.69(d)	.06	.61(d)
Total Frequency	5.8	4.9(b)	6.6	4.9(d)	7.2	8.3(a)	9.3	7.7(c)
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	5.4	4.2(c)	6.1	4.2(d)	6.2	6.2	7.6	5.7(d)
Total Seriousness[2]	3.0	2.4(a)	3.3	2.5(c)	3.5	4.0	4.5	3.4

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) .011 - .05, (d) p ≤ .01.

[2]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 6

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita by Age[1]

Females

Offense/Index	13		14		15		16	
	67	72	67	72	67	72	67	72
	n = 71	78	92	59	110	77	105	75
Run Away	.06	.09	.01	.03	.07	.12	.13	.07
Hit Parent	.04	.08	.08	.12	.16	.12	.20	.11
Truancy	.37	.30	.42	.39	.56	.87(b)	.97	1.0
Property Destruction	.20	.24	.17	.12	.34	.10(c)	.25	.17
Fraud	.18	.18	.19	.42(a)	.34	.33	.41	.52
for money/goods	.03	-0-(a)	.01	-0-	.02	.01	.02	-0-
for alcohol	.01	-0-	.02	.05(a)	.01	.05	.03	.20(b)
Confidence Game	.07	.06	.07	.03	.06	.05	.08	.12
Theft	.18	.31	.28	.27	.36	.62(c)	.40	.37
Shoplifting	.09	.13	.09	.15	.09	.26(c)	.14	.20
Larceny	.11	.17	.29	.09(c)	.29	.27	.34	.17(b)
Burglary	.04	-0-(a)	.01	-0-	.03	.03	.01	-0-
Robbery	.01	-0-	.04	-0-(a)	.01	.05	-0-	-0-
Assault	.20	.12	.22	.12	.26	.18	.14	.08
Threat	.16	.09	.11	.10	.26	.09(b)	.22	.15
Extortion	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-
Trespass	.23	.55(a)	.47	.32	.53	.40	.25	.49(d)
Enter	.45	.27(a)	.34	.27	.44	.36	.51	.43
Break and Enter	.16	.05(a)	.10	.07	.12	.01(d)	.12	.10
Drink	.28	.40	.28	.83(d)	.41	1.1(d)	.91	1.3(b)
Gang Fight	.20	.15	.25	.12(b)	.16	.12	.08	.05
Concealed Weapon	.01	.01	.02	.09	.02	.07	.02	.04
Take Car	-0-	-0-	.01	.02	.03	.07	.10	.01(b)
Use MJ/Drugs	.03	.06	.05	.37(b)	-0-	.71(d)	.10	.59(d)
Total Frequency	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.5	4.0	5.3(b)	4.8	5.5
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.4	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.6
Total Seriousness[2]	.89	.92	.84	.81	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test, are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) p ≤ .01.

[2]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 7

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita by Socio-Economic Status[1] [2]

Males

Offense/Index	Low SES		Medium SES		High SES	
	67	72	67	72	67	72
n =	143	115	168	101	107	90
Run Away	.05	.11(a)	.06	.08	.08	.09
Hit Parent	.09	.10	.13	.12	.09	.11
Truancy	.77	.80	.89	.77	.65	.62
Property Destruction	.68	.40(d)	.67	.67	.60	.61
Fraud	.33	.35	.40	.46	.38	.21(c)
for money/goods	.04	.04	.03	.04	.01	.01
for alcohol	.04	.12(c)	.05	.20(c)	.07	.04
Confidence Game	.11	.19	.17	.19	.14	.02(d)
Theft	.63	.53	.86	.69	.79	.77
Shoplifting	.19	.12	.32	.30	.20	.26
Larceny	.39	.26(c)	.55	.26(d)	.63	.38(c)
Burglary	.06	.04	.02	.09(a)	.05	.07
Robbery	.04	.04	.04	.03	.03	-0-
Assault	.67	.50(a)	.66	.55	.52	.59
Threat	.46	.27(a)	.55	.28(b)	.51	.22
Extortion	.02	-0-(a)	.01	.01	-0-	.01
Trespass	1.0	.63(d)	1.1	.63(d)	.94	.86
Enter	.50	.37	.74	.36(d)	.65	.62
Break and Enter	.18	.08(b)	.19	.08(c)	.22	.14
Drink	.75	.91	.94	1.1	1.0	1.0
Gang Fight	.48	.43	.39	.26(b)	.32	.17(c)
Concealed Weapon	.21	.11	.12	.15	.17	.18
Take Car	.06	.05	.10	.18	.11	.13
Use MJ/Drugs	.01	.17(d)	.06	.68(d)	.06	.38(d)
Total Frequency	6.8	5.9	7.8	7.2	7.0	6.6
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	6.1	4.8(c)	6.8	5.4(c)	5.9	5.2
Total Seriousness[3]	3.4	2.8	3.9	3.5	3.3	3.1

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) p $\leq$ .01.

[2]The Duncan Socio-economic Index was used to establish SES level. For a discussion of the index, see Reiss, A. J. Occupations and Social Status. New York: Free Press, 1961.

[3]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 8

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita by Socio-Economic Status[1,2]

Females

Offense/Index	Low SES		Medium SES		High SES	
	67	72	67	72	67	72
n =	137	102	120	63	89	79
Run Away	.15	.10	.04	.06	.01	.05
Hit Parent	.14	.09	.12	.11	.14	.13
Truancy	.64	.61	.64	.83	.64	.61
Property Destruction	.26	.15	.23	.18	.27	.13
Fraud	.18	.32	.42	.38	.33	.41
for money/goods	.01	-0-	.01	-0-	.06	.01(a)
for alcohol	.02	.12(b)	.02	.10(c)	.02	.05
Confidence Game	.08	.06	.07	.10	.08	-0-(c)
Theft	.26	.37	.30	.43	.40	.29
Shoplifting	.09	.14	.09	.24(a)	.14	.17
Larceny	.24	.21	.31	.14(b)	.30	.11(b)
Burglary	.03	.02	-0-	-0-	.05	-0-(a)
Robbery	.02	-0-	.01	.02	.02	-0-
Assault	.27	.12	.18	.11	.16	.08
Threat	.20	.10	.27	.13(a)	.09	.04
Extortion	.01	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-
Trespass	.39	.42	.38	.37	.34	.56(a)
Enter	.34	.28	.47	.40	.58	.38
Break and Enter	.08	.06	.18	.08(b)	.10	.03(a)
Drink	.39	.82(d)	.58	1.0(c)	.53	1.0(c)
Gang Fight	.26	.14(b)	.12	.11	.08	.08
Concealed Weapon	.03	.02	.03	.05	-0-	.03
Take Car	.02	.02	.08	.03	.03	.04
Use MJ/Drugs	.03	.35(d)	.04	.54(d)	.07	.52(d)
Total Frequency	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.8	3.7	4.4
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	3.2	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.2	2.8
Total Seriousness[3]	1.4	.97	1.2	1.3	.99	.75

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) p $\leq$ .01.

[2]The Duncan Socio-economic Index was used to establish SES level. For a discussion of the index, see Reiss, A. J. Occupations and Social Status. New York: Free Press, 1961.

[3]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 9

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita for Urban, Suburban, and Rural Groups[1]

Males

Offense/Index	Central City		Suburban		Small Cities, Towns		Rural	
	67	72	67	72	67	72	67	72
n =	172	112	88	74	102	54	104	64
Run Away	.08	.14	.10	.03	.05	.17(a)	.04	.08
Hit Parent	.10	.11	.07	.05	.10	.11	.14	.17
Truancy	1.0	.90	.74	.65	.61	.74	.88	.61
Property Destruction	.71	.53	.74	.60	.48	.69	.68	.38(c)
Fraud	.46	.39	.49	.39	.21	.33(b)	.20	.17
for money/goods	.03	.04	.05	.03	.02	.06	-0-	-0-
for alcohol	.04	.14	.06	.12	.06	.15	.04	.08
Confidence Game	.17	.18	.15	.04(c)	.15	.17	.10	.17(a)
Theft	.84	.96	.88	.55(a)	.59	.48	.60	.42
Shoplifting	.27	.24	.39	.26	.11	.17	.20	.17
Larceny	.53	.46	.60	.26(d)	.48	.20(c)	.39	.16(c)
Burglary	.06	.10	.02	.01	.04	.07	.03	.06
Robbery	.02	.08	.03	-0-(a)	.01	.02	.07	-0-(a)
Assault	.73	.71	.68	.54	.47	.56	.58	.23(c)
Threat	.55	.23	.59	.19(c)	.51	.41	.37	.22
Extortion	-0-	.01	.03	-0-(a)	-0-	.02	.02	-0-
Trespass	1.1	.65(d)	.91	.78	.89	.85	.96	.52(d)
Enter	.72	.43	.63	.41(c)	.64	.43(b)	.56	.42
Break and Enter	.22	.13	.23	.05(c)	.18	.04(c)	.17	.16
Drink	1.1	1.3	1.0	.95	.56	1.1(d)	.83	.64
Gang Fight	.56	.29	.31	.27	.38	.33	.46	.33
Concealed Weapon	.28	.19	.15	.12	.17	.18	.07	.06
Take Car	.15	.14	.05	.08	.08	.19(c)	.06	.06
Use MJ/Drugs	.08	.66	.06	.37(d)	-0-	.41(d)	.01	.02
Total Frequency	8.6	7.8	7.5	6.0	5.9	7.1	6.5	4.5(d)
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	7.4	5.9(d)	6.5	4.7(c)	5.3	5.6	5.7	3.8(d)
Total Seriousness[2]	4.4	3.7	3.9	2.6(a)	2.7	3.7	3.1	2.1

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) p < .01.

[2]This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 10

'67-'72 Comparison of Number of Incidents Per Capita for Urban, Suburban, and Rural Groups[1]

Females

Offense/Index	Central City		Suburban		Small Cities, Towns		Rural	
	67	72	67	72	67	72	67	72
n =	131	91	82	58	79	42	81	60
Run Away	.06	.09	.05	.09	.09	.07	.10	.07
Hit Parent	.14	.11	.11	.16	.11	.12	.15	.07
Truancy	.63	.73	.77	.85	.49	.76	.53	.43
Property Destruction	.32	.19	.20	.17	.19	.12	.25	.12
Fraud	.31	.27	.38	.71(c)	.27	.19	.20	.20
for money/goods	.04	-0-(b)	.01	.02	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-
for alcohol	.02	.05	.02	.19(c)	.01	-0-	.03	.10
Confidence game	.09	.11	.05	.03	.08	-0-(b)	.05	.08
Theft	.30	.42	.43	.45	.29	.24	.27	.33
Shoplifting	.11	.21(a)	.13	.26(c)	.11	.14	.06	.08
Larceny	.26	.14(b)	.39	.19	.23	.07(b)	.21	.20
Burglary	.02	.01	-0-	-0-	-0-	-0-	.06	.02
Robbery	.02	.04	-0-	-0-	.04	-0-	.01	-0-
Assault	.26	.19	.16	.05(a)	.22	.19	.17	.05(a)
Threat	.17	.21	.18	.02(d)	.23	.02(c)	.22	.12
Extortion	.01	-0-	-0-	-0-	.01	-0-	-0-	-0-
Trespass	.41	.44	.40	.64	.32	.33	.38	.42
Enter	.46	.31(a)	.37	.33	.38	.31	.52	.45
Break and Enter	.15	.08(b)	.09	.03	.14	.07	.11	.02(b)
Drink	.46	.96(d)	.73	1.2(c)	.23	.74(d)	.61	.83
Gang Fight	.17	.12	.17	.05(b)	.20	.17	.14	.12
Concealed Weapon	.02	.05	.04	.02	.01	-0-	-0-	.13(c)
Take Car	.05	.01	.02	-0-	.04	.12(b)	.03	.02
Use MJ/Drugs	.03	.47	.12	.78(d)	.01	.31(d)	.03	.18(a)
Total Frequency	3.9	4.7	4.2	5.5(a)	3.2	3.7	3.6	3.6
Total Frequency-Drink and MJ/Drugs	3.4	3.2	3.3	3.6	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.6
Total Seriousness[2]	1.5	1.5	1.1	.76	1.2	1.1	1.2	.90

[1]Differences which are significant at levels of .15 or lower, using the Mann-Whitney U test are noted as follows: (a) p = .101 - .15, (b) p = .051 - .10, (c) p = .011 - .05, (d) p ≤ .01.

[2] This index is an exception to the title--it does not simply reflect the number of incidents per capita; see pp. 20-22 for documentation.

TABLE 11

Frequency of Dating and Its Relationship to Delinquent Behavior Particularly to Use of Drugs (by sex, age, and year)

	Boys		Boys (15-16)		Girls (15-16)	
	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972
Gammas:						
Frequency of dating by:						
Tot Freq-DD	.39	.28	.39	.24	.21	.23
p-level	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01
Use MJ/Drugs	.60	.52	.51	.35	.59	.46
p-level	<.01	<.01	.16	<.01	.06	<.01
Means:						
Frequency of dating	1.96*	1.73	2.88	2.55	3.13	3.69
p-level (by t test)	<.20		.18		.05	
N =	468	350	256	177	214	155

*These figures reflect a scale of dates per month, but should not be interpreted literally since the scale is truncated at its high end.

TABLE 12

Boys' Autonomy from Parents and Its Relationship to Delinquent Behavior Particularly to Use of Drugs
(by age, frequency of dating, and year)

	Boys		Boys (15-16)		Boys (15-16)			
					low daters		high daters	
	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972
Gammas:								
Autonomy by:								
Tot Freq-DD	.03	.10	-.01	.03	.13	-.04	-.17	.01
p-level	*	.05	*	*	*	*	.05	*
Use MJ/Drugs	-.13†	.20†	-.17	.17	.13	-.09	-.40	.25
p-level	*	.03	*	.12	*	*	.17	.07
P-level of difference between 1967 and 1972 gammas for Use MJ/Drugs	†		.21		*		.05	
Means:								
Autonomy	10.9	12.0	11.3	12.4	11.3	12.2	11.3	13.0
p-level of 1967-1972 difference	<.01		<.01		<.05		<.05	
N =	432	312	234	159	116	91	117	65

*p-level >.50

†These gammas are less meaningful because age, which is positively correlated with both autonomy and use of drugs, was not controlled. Therefore, the reliability of the difference between the '67 and '72 gamma was not computed.

TABLE 13

Sex of Companions in the Use of Marijuana and of Other Drugs--1972

	Boys (13-18)	Girls (13-18)
Marijuana		
Alone	8%	3%
With others of same sex	68	23
With others of opposite sex	26	74
	100 (N=132)	100 (N=107)
Other Drugs		
Alone	25	20
With others of same sex	72	43
With others of opposite sex	3	37
	100 (N=46)	100 (N=40)

TABLE 14

Sex of Source of Marijuana and of Other Drugs--1972*

	Boys (13-18)	Girls (13-18)
Marijuana		
Male	87%	68%
Female	13	32
	100 (N=104)	100 (N=98)
Other Drugs		
Male	91	65
Female	9	35
	100 (N=34)	100 (N=34)

*Table does not include Rs who said they bought marijuana (27 boys and 2 girls) or other drugs (15 boys and 4 girls).

TABLE 15

Perception of Drug Use among Teenagers and Its Relationship to Own Drug Use (by sex, age, frequency of dating, and year)

	Boys		Boys (15-16)		Boys (15-16) low daters		Boys (15-16) high daters		Girls (15-16)	
	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972
Gammas:										
Perception of drug use among teenagers by Use MJ/Drugs	-.27	.12	-.21	.14	-.19	-.04	-.24	.38	-.25	.08
p-level	.20	.19	.35	.15	*	*	.42	<.01	.35	*
Difference between 1967 and 1972 gamma	.05		.12		*		.07		.05	
Means:										
Perception of drug use among teenagers	3.5	5.4	3.3	5.2	3.0	5.4	3.6	5.1	4.7	6.8
p-level of 1967-1972 difference	<.01		<.01		<.01		<.01		<.01	
N =	465	348	256	178	124	102	131	73	214	160

*p-level >.50

TABLE 16

Per Capita Dates of 15-16 Year Old Girls (by rurality and by year)

	1967	1972	p
Urban-suburban-town	3.2 (157)	3.9 (110)	<.05
Rural	3.0 (54)	3.3 (39)	>.50
p of rural-other difference	>.50	.25	

TABLE 17

Parental Autonomy of 15-16 Year Old Boys (by rurality and by year)

	1967	1972	p
Urban-suburban-town	11.1 (184)	12.6 (122)	<.01
Rural	11.8 (49)	11.6 (30)	>.50
p of rural-other difference	.22	.10	

TABLE 18

Perception of Teenagers' Drug Use among 15-16 Year Old Boys
(by rurality and by year)

	1967	1972	p
Urban-suburban-town	3.2 (203)	5.3 (140)	<.01
Rural	3.7 (52)	4.8 (31)	.06
p of rural-other difference	.20	.25	

TABLE 19

Closeness of Boys' Relationships to their Fathers and Mothers and Its Relationship to Delinquent Behavior Particularly to Use of Drugs (by age and year)

	Boys				Boys (15-16)			
	Father		Mother		Father		Mother	
	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972	1967	1972
Gammas:								
Closeness of relationships to parents								
Tot Freq - DD	-.17	-.21	-.15	-.19	-.19	-.23	-.12	-.13
p-level	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.06	.07
Use MJ/Drugs	-.51	-.28	-.51	-.29	-.61	-.23	-.59	-.21
p-level	<.01	<.01	<.02	<.01	<.01	.04	.02	.05
Means:								
Closeness of relationships to parents	19.4	18.4	15.1	14.2	18.9	17.9	15.0	13.7
p-level of 1967-1972 difference	<.01		<.01		.03		<.01	
N =	434	315	467	346	236	162	255	176